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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER MODELS ON CHILDREN'S
HELPING AND DONATING BEHAVIORS

by



GLORIA CAROLYN RABENSTEIN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Effects of Teacher Models on Children's Helping and Donating Behaviors" submitted by Gloria Carolyn Rabenstein in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

ABSTRACT

The thesis upon which the present study was based was that the behavior of helpful teacher models in classroom situations can be generalized to influence children's helping and donating behaviors in other contexts.

Grade two children were randomly assigned to one of three groups (1) helpful, (2) non-helpful, and (3) control. The helpful treatment group viewed a video tape illustrating helpful teacher models interacting with children in eight classroom situations. The non-helpful treatment group viewed the teacher models responding to identical classroom situations in a non-helpful manner. The control group viewed a narrated filmstrip unrelated to classroom behavior.

Subjects in each group were then placed in an experimental setting which offered three opportunities to give aid to other children. These were: (1) helping a younger child pick up playing cards that had been dropped, (2) helping a younger child get a coat which had been placed too high for him to reach, and (3) donating poker chips to a fund for crippled children. A questionnaire was also administered to determine whether the teacher models' verbal behaviors had been modeled and whether children were aware of the norm of helpfulness in similar situations. The subjects' behavior was subsequently rated by judges to determine the degree of helpfulness displayed in each situation tested.

None of the hypotheses proposed by the thesis was accepted at a 0.05 level of confidence. A trend in the predicted direction, however,

was observed for donating behavior. Near significance was obtained to reject an hypothesis related to helping behavior and sibling status.

Results from the questionnaire indicated that the subjects were aware of the norms of social responsibility in similar situations despite their lack of helpful behavior in the experimental situation. No significant effect was found for teacher model behavior and children's verbal responses to hypothetical helping situations.

encouragement throughout the course of the project made the completion of this thesis an easier task.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Purpose of the Study	4
Definition of Terms	5
Limitations of the Study	6
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	8
Symbolic Models	9
Model Characteristics	9
Generalization of Modeling Influences	10
Prosocial Behaviors and Modeling Influences	11
Age of Subjects	15
Helping Relationship and Core Conditions	16
III. METHOD	19
Overview	19
Hypotheses	21
Pilot Study	21
Research Design and Statistical Methods	22
Procedures	23
Preparation of Video Tape	23
Film Validation	27
The Sample	28
Treatment	30
Experimental Setting	30

CHAPTER		PAGE
	Treatment Procedure	31
	Measures Used	32
	Behavioral Tests	32
	Questionnaire	35
	Analysis of Data	36
	Actor Persistency	36
IV.	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	38
	Helping Behavior	38
	Donating Behavior	41
	Questionnaire Responses	47
	Cartoon Situations	47
	Awareness of Social Responsibility	52
	Effectiveness of Video Tape	53
	Ancillary Findings	53
	Intention to Help	54
	Intention to Donate	56
	Discussion	58
	Helping Behavior	58
	Donating Behavior	65
	Verbal Behavior	67
V.	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	68
	Summary and Conclusions	68
	Implications for Further Studies	70
	Implications for Teachers and Counsellors	72
	REFERENCES	74

	PAGE
APPENDICES	82
APPENDIX A	83
APPENDIX B	86
APPENDIX C	90
APPENDIX D	92
APPENDIX E	94
APPENDIX F	96
APPENDIX G	99
APPENDIX H	104
APPENDIX I	107
APPENDIX J	110

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
I MEAN SCORES FOR JUDGED HELPFULNESS OF HELPFUL AND NON-Helpful VIDEO TAPE SEQUENCES	29
II FREQUENCY OF HELP OFFERED	40
III TOTAL DONATIONS AND MEANS FOR DONATING BEHAVIOR	42
IV ADJUSTED DONATIONS, MEANS, VARIANCES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR DONATING BEHAVIOR	43
V FREQUENCY OF DONATING BEHAVIOR	44
VI PERCENTAGE OF DONATING BEHAVIOR	45
VII MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR JUDGED VERBAL HELPFULNESS IN CARTOON SITUATIONS	49
VIII MEANS, VARIANCES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SITUATION FIVE ON JUDGED HELPFULNESS SCALE	50
IX MEANS, VARIANCES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SITUATION THREE ON JUDGED HELPFULNESS SCALE	51
X MEANS, VARIANCES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INTENTION TO HELP AND SIBLING RELATIONSHIP	57
XI MEANS, VARIANCES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR TREATMENT GROUPS ON INTENTION TO DONATE	59

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Many a parent has noted with amusement the realistic manner in which children "play school." Both the verbal and non-verbal behaviors of the child seem to replicate fairly closely what the child has undoubtedly observed in his classroom. His role-playing allows him to rehearse appropriate adult behavior and to place himself temporarily in a position of power and authority as he takes the part of "teacher." Play allows the child to practice and to display his competence and understanding of social norms, and aids the process of socialization.

The behaviors of the teacher may be evident not only in the child's role-playing behavior but also in everyday interactions with his peers. Since teachers as well as parents have great potential as models for children (Bandura, 1969b), it would seem possible that their behavior may have considerable influence on the child's behavior in peer-relationships.

If, then, teachers do act as models and the behaviors learned from them have potential for being used in peer relationships, it would be well to study whether students when shown a model of a teacher in a relationship with another student will generalize this demonstrated behavior to interactions with other children.

Teachers may model both desirable and undesirable behaviors. It is quite possible that the teachers provide a model which is at least

in part responsible for the inconsiderate manner in which children are so often seen interacting. Making fun of each other's mistakes, being unnecessarily bossy, threatening aggressive behavior if their own demands are not met, and dealing with situations in a manner which shows considerable lack of respect for the other child and disregard for his feelings are common ways in which children deal with certain social situations. It is possible that statements relaying a threat such as "Stop talking this minute or you're going to sit out in the hall" can be transformed into "If you tell Mom, you're going to get it." The lack of respect shown in "How many times do I have to repeat that to get it through your head?" can be a model for the attitude expressed in "You're so stupid, Ken, you'll never be able to do it right."

Children encounter a variety of other models who display threatening, disrespectful, and unsympathetic behaviors. Parents commonly note with pleasure or chagrin how their children have imitated their gestures, sex-typed behavior, idiosyncratic phrases, unacceptable vocabulary or behavior. Adults, friends, characters in televised commercials, stories, and cartoons are examples of other models who might display these characteristics. To persuade these models to change their behavior, and to teach them to use a more positive approach in their interactions, would be a monumental if not an impossible task.

Teachers are in a unique category for behavioral change. Unlike parents, before they are allowed to be placed in their role as a model for the child, they are required to meet certain qualifications. They are also encouraged to increase their knowledge and skills after they

have become qualified teachers. The professional development of teachers, then, might include illustrating their significance as models. The positive and negative aspects of teacher behavior could be shown so that teachers can determine which interpersonal skills they would prefer having their students emulate. Teachers could be assisted in learning skills to communicate a cooperative, sympathetic and respectful attitude which their pupils may, in turn, imitate.

Furthermore, teachers, like counsellors, work in a helping profession. Enhancing the personal growth of the child, whether it be intellectual or emotional, is a concern of teachers as well as counsellors. Thus, certain aspects of counsellor training would be appropriate for teacher training as well. In particular, teachers could be assisted in humanizing their approach to instruction by learning the skills which have been shown to facilitate learning in helping relationships (Carkhuff, 1969; Rogers, 1969). If the teacher model were trained to interact with children in a manner which facilitates the helping relationship, children in turn may be in a better position to learn behaviors and skills which would enhance understanding and cooperation with their peers.

In summary, children role play the behaviors which occur in the classroom. It is proposed that these behaviors are also elicited and generalized in the child's social peer interactions. Since teachers are important models in the child's socialization process, they could be made aware of their influence as models. Furthermore, if teachers could be taught to be better models of those characteristics which define "helpfulness" in a counselling relationship, their examples of

such behaviors may, as a result, foster more sympathetic and helpful behaviors in children's peer interactions.

Purpose of the Study

The present study was designed to determine if a relationship does exist between teacher behavior and children's subsequent helping behaviors. A videotape was produced in which teachers interacted with children in simulated classroom situations either in a "helpful" or "non-helpful" manner. Children in the study were assigned randomly to one of three groups: (1) helpful, (2) non-helpful, and (3) control. After viewing the videotape of either the helpful teacher model, the non-helpful teacher model, or a control film, each child was taken to a room where his responses to three behavioral tests were recorded. These were: (1) assisting a younger child in picking up playing cards which had been dropped, (2) assisting a younger child in removing a coat from a hook too high for the younger child to reach, and (3) donating poker chips to a needy cause. His responses were then rated as "helpful" or "non-helpful" according to specified criteria. In this manner an attempt was made to demonstrate whether the teacher's behavior of helpfulness or non-helpfulness had generalized to these criterion situations.

In addition, the children were given a test to determine whether the verbal behavior of the teachers depicted in the video tapes had been modeled. Each subject was also interviewed to determine whether there was a discrepancy between the manner in which he had actually performed in the experiment and what he claimed he would do

under similar circumstances. In this way a brief survey was made of the subjects' knowledge of socially responsible (helpful) behavior which would already have been acquired in the socialization process.

Definition of Terms

The major research question of the present thesis is: Will the behavior of "helpful" teacher models be generalized by children observers to affect their behaviors in other situations? The major variables will be operationally defined as follows:

Helpful Behavior

A. Teacher behavior will be judged as being "helpful" when higher levels of empathic understanding, respect and concreteness are evident as described in Chapter III.

B. Subjects' behaviors will be judged as being "helpful" when assistance is offered to a younger child in a manner which would meet the criteria outlined in Chapter III.

C. Subjects' verbal behavior will be judged as being "helpful" when responses to a questionnaire indicate higher levels of functioning as described in Chapter III.

Non-Helpful Behavior

A. Teacher behavior will be judged as being "non-helpful" when lower levels of empathic understanding, respect and concreteness are evident as described in Chapter III.

B. Subjects' behaviors will be judged as being "non-helpful" when no assistance is offered to a younger child in a manner meeting the criteria outlined in Chapter III.

C. Subjects' verbal behavior will be judged as being "non-helpful" when responses to a questionnaire indicate lower levels of functioning as described in Chapter III.

Donating behavior

This behavior will be defined as having occurred when a subject places one or more poker chips in a box designated for charitable donations.

Teacher models

The male and female teacher actors who illustrated "helpful" and "non-helpful" teacher behaviors in a video tape produced for the study will be called the helpful and non-helpful teacher models.

Social responsibility

This term will be defined by answers given to a questionnaire which indicate whether the subjects would give help in hypothetical situations in which assistance is socially appropriate.

All of the terms defined above have been operationalized for the purpose of this study. More explicit operational definitions along with relevant procedures may be found in Chapter III.

Limitations of the Study

The subjects who took part in this experiment were primary school aged, elementary school children; therefore, the results of the study may not apply to students in other age categories.

Secondly, the subjects were from white, middle-class neighborhoods. The knowledge and performance of the social behaviors which were evident in this study, therefore, may not be indicative of children of other socio-economic or racial backgrounds.

The behavioral tests employed and the questionnaire used were devised by the investigator so that no exact comparison with previous studies is possible. Whether or not the results of the study are reliable, then, would have to be determined by repeating the experiment.

Furthermore, limitations of time, volunteer labor, and finances in conducting the experiment restricted the extent to which standar-dized conditions could be maintained, the facilities which could be used, and the number of subjects who could take part in the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The theoretical basis for the study is that which has developed from the work of Albert Bandura. He has documented the fact that a great variety of social behavior can be acquired through imitation (Bandura, 1962, 1963, 1965, 1968, 1969). Social learning can and does take place, as Bandura points out, through observation of a model alone. Unlike learning acquired by classical or operant conditioning, the observer need not be punished or rewarded for learning to take place.

An important distinction is made in Bandura's writings between acquisition and performance. Behavior may be acquired as evident in verbal responses (replicated symbolically) even when the behavior is not imitated exactly as modeled (performance). Furthermore, whether or not the behavior will be acquired is dependent upon certain variables such as attention to modeling cues, motivational factors, number of models and vicarious reinforcement (Bandura, 1965). Variables governing performance have been shown to be nurturance withdrawal, fear of aggression, reinforcement control of identificatory behavior, vicarious reinforcement, model status cues and social system variables (Bandura, 1969).

Initially, Bandura's experiments dealt with eliciting novel behaviors. That is, to show that learning could have taken place

through observation alone, it was important to elicit behaviors which were unlikely ever to have been in the child's repertory. Thereby, no other source for the child's behavior could be used to account for the responses in the experimental setting. These early experiments discussed by Bandura and Walters (1963) were based mainly upon imitation of aggressive behavior. A model's significance was thus shown as an important influence for learning novel responses and for disinhibiting aggressive acts.

Symbolic Models

A model need not be a live person. This fact was illustrated in the classic study by Bandura, Ross & Ross (1963b). Not only did a filmed model and a filmed cartoon character significantly increase children's aggressive behaviors, but the aggressive, filmed person was shown to be even more influential than the live model. Thus, it appears that symbolic models are just as effective in commanding attention and conveying sufficient information as live models.

Furthermore, recent studies have documented the effectiveness of a film-mediated model not only in eliciting aggressive behaviors (Hicks, 1965; Liebert, 1972; Liebert & Fernandez, 1970; Walters & Willows, 1968) but also in performing pro-social behaviors (Bryan & Walbek, 1970b; Stein & Bryan, 1972; Wolf & Cheyne, 1972).

Model Characteristics

Peer models have been shown to have significant effects upon children's subsequent behavior (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a; Bandura,

Ross & Ross, 1963c; Hartup & Coates, 1967). Adult models, however, have been shown to be more influential than peer models for elementary school age children (Bandura & Kupers, 1964) especially adult male models (Bandura & Kupers, 1964; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a).

Children in their everyday experiences are exposed to multiple models (Bandura, 1969b) such as teachers, adults in their neighborhood, peer companions and a variety of others on television and in films. The effectiveness of multiple models has also been illustrated under laboratory conditions (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a; Bandura & Menlove, 1968). Thus, it is extremely doubtful that children rely exclusively on their parents as models for the diversity of behaviors which they display.

Generalization of Modeling Influences

Little research has yet been reported which would illustrate that specific modeled behaviors can be generalized and transferred to new situations and relationships. Learning theory, however would suggest that such an occurrence is possible. Ausubel & Robinson (1969) state that behaviors learned in one context can be applied to new situations. Furthermore, such a transfer of learning is likely to take place when the learner recognizes certain elements which are similar in both situations (Bigge, 1964, Ellis, 1965). Therefore, it would seem possible that children not only will learn modes of dealing with others through observation, but will also apply these behaviors in new situations. Evidence of children's role-playing behavior (Hartup,

1964; Levin & Sears, 1956; Maccoby, 1959; Sears et al, 1965) would also substantiate the fact that responses observed in adults are imitated by children in new contexts.

In the majority of modeling experiments, a limited number of responses are displayed and observers are subsequently tested for the amount of precise duplication they imitate under identical or similar conditions. On the other hand, a small number of studies have indicated that modeling also has the potential for eliciting generalized behavior orientations and novel combinations of responses (Bandura, 1969b). The potential for modeling cues to be synthesized into more general patterns of behavior has been observed in experiments to modify moral judgments in children (Bandura & McDonald, 1963), to alter delay of gratification behavior patterns (Bandura & Mischel, 1965) and to elicit aggressive and non-aggressive behavior in emotionally disturbed children (Davids, 1972). Results of these studies illustrate that children are capable of responding to new stimulus situations in a manner consistent with the model's dispositions even though they had never previously witnessed the model's behavior to the same stimuli (Bandura, 1969a).

Prosocial Behaviors and Modeling Influences

Recent literature has shown a tendency for experimentation in the variables associated with prosocial behavior (Midlarsky, 1968). Those studies most relevant to the present investigation are those which deal with helping and sharing behaviors.

Berkowitz has studied the effect of dependency relationships (Berkowitz & Conner, 1966; Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963, 1964) upon certain helpful and cooperative behaviors. He has found, in general, that the greater the dependency of the person in need, the more likely he is to receive help. In this manner Berkowitz has shown that the norm of social responsibility (for a dependent other) seems to be a strong determinant of helping behavior rather than the norm of reciprocity (that the favor will be returned sometime in the future).

The incidence of both helping (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963; Staub, 1970a) and sharing (Elliott & Vasta, 1970; Handlon, Gross, 1959; Midlarsky & Bryan, 1967) appear to increase with age. Several explanations have been proposed to account for this phenomenon. First, as a child grows older, his confidence in his ability to help increases (Midlarsky, 1968). Second, the degree to which he has learned he is expected to help has also increased (Staub, 1970a; Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963). Cognitively, as the child develops, he is more able to take the role of another person (Flavel et al, 1968; Selman, 1971) or to consider events from another person's point of view (Murphy, 1937; Piaget & Inhelder, 1956). He becomes cognitively less egocentric (Piaget, 1928, 1932, 1960; Kohlberg, 1969). Furthermore, the capacity for empathy appears to increase with age (Aronfreed, 1968; Dymond et al, 1952) which could also account for the developmental increase of children's helping and sharing behaviors.

Similarity between the person offering help and the person helped may be another important variable for helpful behaviors to occur. It has been found that perceived similarity enhances empathy

in adults (Stotland & Dunn, 1963; Stotland & Walsh, 1963) and in children (Feshbach & Roe, 1968). If helpfulness can be considered an outcome of empathic responsiveness, similarity of the helper and the person helped may also be important.

Another variable related to sharing behavior appears to be family size (Midlarsky & Bryan, 1967; Staub, 1971a) and birth order (Staub, 1970a). One explanation given for the greater probability that older children will help is that they are given more responsibility (Staub, 1970a; Whiting & Whiting, 1969) and thus have greater experience in giving aid.

Modeling has been shown to have three distinctive influences: (1) establishing new response patterns, (2) inhibiting and disinhibiting well learned (negative) response patterns, and (3) facilitating previously learned (positive) response patterns (Bandura, 1969a). By means of this third mechanism, a great variety of prosocial behavior has been elicited including helping and sharing (Bandura, 1969a; Bryan, 1970a). The effectiveness of a model has been shown in inducing both adults (Bryan & Test, 1967; Horowitz, 1968; Test & Bryan, 1969) and children (Staub, 1970a,b; 1971a,b,c) to offer help under a variety of circumstances.

A much greater number of studies have shown the effectiveness of a model in eliciting children's donation or sharing responses (Bryan, 1969, 1970a,b; Bryan & Walbek, 1970; Elliott & Vasta, 1970; Harris, 1970; Hartup & Coates, 1967; Midlarsky & Bryan, 1967; Poulos & Liebert, 1972; Rosenhan & White, 1967; White & Rosenhan, 1966; Staub & Sherk, 1970).

Bryan (1969) has indicated that although a child may cognitively accept the norm of generosity, the model's actions are much more influential than his words (Bryan, 1969; Bryan & Walbek, 1970b) in the child's donating behavior.

The model need not be rewarded for his giving to be imitated by the child. In fact, two studies (Elliott & Vasta, 1970; Harris, 1970) illustrate the fact that the rewarded model group did not give significantly more than the non-rewarded model group. Thus, neither the promise of a future reward (reciprocity) nor seeing the model rewarded (vicarious reinforcement) appear to be necessary for giving behavior to occur in children.

An explanation for the effectiveness of a model in eliciting children's sharing and helping behaviors has been given by Bryan (1970a). He cites several articles which lend support to the theory that the model does not remind the child of his social obligation but rather reduces the inhibitions which would restrain him from carrying out social responsibility. Such an explanation further supports the facilitative effect of modeling which has been referred to previously.

In summary, a review of the literature indicates several facts regarding modeling and helping behaviors. First, the power of a model to influence the behavior of adults as well as children has been well documented. Next, symbolic models have been shown to be as influential as live models. In addition, for children adult models have been shown to be more persuasive than peer models and the fact that multiple adult models are important in a child's social learning has also been illustrated. Furthermore, modeling has the effect to facilitate the

expression of previously learned prosocial behaviors including helping and sharing responses. Although modeling studies which illustrate the potential generalizing effect of a model learning theory are scarce, the studies of children's role-playing behaviors would indicate that behavior learned in one context can be transferred to new situations as well.

Age of Subjects

Subjects were attending grade two when they were selected for the study. This age group was chosen for several reasons. First, certain modeling studies (Aronfreed, 1968; Poulos & Liebert, 1972) have been conducted with children of this age which have led to significant differences between treatment groups. Secondly, children of this age were considered to be young enough so that the intent of the experiment could not be easily understood while participating. Since the experimental groups were to view teacher models who were either obviously helpful or non-helpful in each of the filmed situations, it was thought that these children would still be naive enough that the intent behind such biased sequences would not be readily apparent. Their behaviors would thus be more apt to reflect differences due to the treatment procedures than a sophisticated, calculated effort to behave the way they "ought to." Furthermore, children of this age are not so young that they would be prone to cry easily or to be uncooperative in an unfamiliar setting away from their mothers. At the same time, they are old enough to have had experience in a school setting. Because the experiment was to take place in a school building, these children

would encounter sufficient, familiar cues to allow them to take part in the study with a certain amount of self-confidence and natural ease. Finally, this age group is not so young that helping and cooperative behaviors would be totally absent from their repertory of responses (Handlon & Gross, 1959; Staub & Sherk, 1970). Even though they may be in a developmental transition stage in which cooperative behaviors are only emerging (Berkowitz, 1964; Piaget, 1932), children of this age would normally have some experience or knowledge of appropriate helping behaviors.

Helping Relationships and Core Conditions

A great deal of evidence is available to support the premise that the relationship required for most of the helping professions are highly similar (Avila, et al, 1971). Furthermore, helping processes are specific instances of interpersonal relationships in general (Carkhuff, 1969; Rogers, 1958). Therefore, those conditions which best facilitate the learning process in interpersonal relationships will best enhance these helping relationships.

Research has indicated (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967; Carkhuff & Truax, 1966) that a common core of dimensions which enhance human interactions between the "more knowing" and the "less knowing" are: (1) empathic understanding, (2) positive regard, (3) genuineness, and (4) concreteness or specificity of expression. These conditions have been shown to be central in the psychotherapeutic process of constructive personality change. Both the counselling and the teaching relationships, in addition, involve interactions between the facilitator of learning

and the learner (Carkhuff, 1969; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967; Rogers, 1971). Thus, it would appear that these core conditions which facilitate learning in counselling relationships would be effective in the positive personal growth in the teaching relationship as well.

Research, in fact, does support the proposition that teachers can be more effective when these conditions are present. The characteristic of warmth (positive regard) has been shown to be significantly related to achievement in vocabulary and arithmetic (Christensen, 1960). Aspy (1967) also reports significant gains in grade three reading achievement for those students whose teachers rated high in levels of empathy, congruence (genuineness) and positive regard. Studies conducted with college students also indicate that a high degree of achievement is associated with informality and warmth of student-faculty contacts (Thistlethwaite, 1959). Then, too, students reporting the value of secondary school 20 years after graduation most frequently mention warmth and genuine concern of the teachers and administrators for the individual (Carkhuff & Truax, 1966).

Truax and Tatum (1966) also cite evidence that at the primary and preschool level, high degrees of the facilitative conditions effect positive changes in preschool adjustment. Empathic understanding and unconditional positive regard from the teacher were effective in overall adjustment to preschool but no significant changes were related to genuineness.

Purkey (1971) furthermore emphasizes the important relationship between positive self image in the child and academic success. A classroom atmosphere which allows the student to gain a positive and

realistic image of himself as a learner is related to school progress. Purkey characterizes such an atmosphere by attributes which include respect and warmth.

Thus, the importance of empathic understanding, respect and, to a certain extent, genuineness has been documented in facilitating positive learning outcomes in the classroom. Improvement in interpersonal relationships among peers may also result when teachers function at higher levels of these characteristics.

Extensive evidence exists which indicates that facilitative effects result in human interactions when the "more knowing" individual functions at a higher level of these core conditions than the "less knowing" person (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967). If these findings are also relevant to the teacher-student relationship, then teachers functioning at higher levels than their students should help their students improve in these dimensions. Students exposed to such teacher models may, in turn, provide a facilitative relationship with their peers who function at lower levels. Such a transfer, it would seem, may result in a greater prominence of facilitative levels of empathy, respect and concreteness among children.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Overview

The general purpose of this study was to illustrate that teacher models can influence children to respond to their peers in a helpful manner. The study was not designed to show that novel behaviors could be learned from a model, that is, those which are unique and unlikely ever to have been a child's repertoire of responses. Instead, the study was designed to test whether helpful teacher models, as defined in this study, would elicit behaviors which were already a part of the child's capacity for socially responsible behavior.

The investigator's primary concern was to study children's helping responses in a naturalistic setting. In the present study children's helpful behavior was defined by responses in three situations:

- (1) assisting a younger child in picking up playing cards which have been dropped,
- (2) assisting a younger child in removing a coat from a hook too high for the younger child to reach, and
- (3) donating poker chips to a crippled children's summer camp fund.

A video tape was prepared to provide the teacher models for helpful and non-helpful behavior. The effectiveness of the actors in portraying these contrasting behaviors was validated by counsellor judges.

Grade two children were randomly selected to take part in the study and, in turn, were assigned randomly to one of three groups (1) helpful, (2) non-helpful, and (3) control. Those in the helpful group viewed the video tape depicting helpful teacher behaviors. Subjects assigned to the non-helpful group watched the video tape of non-helpful teacher models and the control group viewed a narrated filmstrip unrelated to teacher behavior.

Subjects were tested individually to determine whether the treatment films had affected their helping and donating responses. Their behaviors were recorded on video tape for later judging.

A questionnaire was administered to the subjects to attempt to determine whether there was a relationship between the children's verbal responses to hypothetical situations and the verbal responses of the teachers in the stimulus films. In this instance the study endeavored to investigate whether the models' verbal behavior would be imitated in a manner which would indicate learning novel behavior from the model. Both the model teachers' and the children's verbal responses were scored according to similar criteria.

Verbal responses which were designed to discover whether or not the children were aware of a norm of social responsibility were also elicited. In this way an attempt was made to determine if these subjects were aware of what children their age would do in certain situations where help was needed regardless of whether or not they themselves had displayed helping behaviors in the experiment. It was assumed that their verbal behavior would indicate what they "ought" to do which would reflect the norm of social responsibility taught in the socialization process.

Hypotheses

With consideration for the problem stated, the literature cited, and the definitions of "helpful" used in the present study, the following directional hypotheses were tested.

- I Subjects exposed to the helpful teacher models will aid a younger child in picking up cards which have been dropped significantly more often than those exposed to the non-helpful models.
- II Children in the helpful experimental group will offer aid to a younger child in removing a coat from a high location significantly more often than those in the non-helpful group.
- III Subjects in the helpful group will donate significantly more poker chips to charity than those in the non-helpful group.
- IV Children exposed to helpful teacher models will express significantly more helpful verbal responses to a questionnaire than those exposed to the non-helpful models.
- V Children will help a child of the same sex significantly more often than a child of the opposite sex.
- VI Children who are the oldest in the family constellation will help and donate significantly more often than those who are later borns.
- VII Helping behaviors can be learned by young children.
- VIII Classroom teachers are appropriate models for helping behaviors.
- IX Helpful teacher behaviors have the potential to elicit helpful behaviors from the child toward his peers.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to determine which questions and behavioral situations would be most feasible and appropriate for the purposes of this study. The results of the pilot study indicated that a test period of one minute was sufficient if the subject had any intention to help in picking up the playing cards or removing the coat.

In addition the decision was made not to have the young child request help since most subjects responded with assistance when a request was made and since remembering to ask for help placed greater demands upon the child actor.

Results of the pilot study also dictated modifications in the age of the young child in need of help. A child of age three was seen as being most appropriate for the experiment. The age difference between him and the grade two subjects would be similar to the age and status relationship between teacher and child in the treatment video tape. At the same time, the child would still be old enough so that being in need of help in the experimental context would be typical. A three year old child, however, was found to be too young to understand the need for behaving in the same manner consistently, several times in a row, was too dependent upon having adults nearby, and tired too easily to sustain the acting required for the study. Therefore, a boy and a girl approximately four and one half years of age were chosen to be the confederates of the experimenter during the behavioral testing.

During the pilot study, children expressed a great deal of curiosity regarding the purpose of the cameras in the television studio. Therefore, the decision was made to explain briefly the function of the studio to each subject before entering the room since concealing the cameras would not be possible.

Research Design and Statistical Methods

A posttest only control group design was used. An equal number of male and female subjects was randomly selected from the population

of students used and randomly assigned to the three treatment conditions. An equal number of boys and girls was assigned to each of three groups: (1) helpful, (2) non-helpful, and (3) control.

One way analysis of variance and chi square were used to test the significance of differences among groups for the criterion measures.

Procedures

Preparation of Video Tape

A video tape was produced to illustrate helpful and non-helpful teacher behaviors. The helpful segments of the tape would be shown to subjects who were to be exposed to helpful teacher models. Similarly, the non-helpful portions of the tape would be shown to those subjects assigned to the non-helpful model group.

A male and female graduate student, both of whom were former teachers played the role of the teachers in the video tape. Four grade three students, two boys and two girls played the role of students.

Before the taping took place, each teacher was given a list of possible situations from which to choose. These were classroom interactions which, in the opinion of the investigator, actor teachers and pupils, were typical instances of students who are misbehaving or are having academic difficulty. From this list, in turn, the acting teachers chose those situations which they felt they could act out most comfortably. Thus, an attempt was made to make the videotaped situations as realistic as possible.

The classroom situations subsequently chosen to be included in each of the treatment films (helpful and non-helpful) were:

- (1) a teacher enters the classroom as a scuffle is taking place,
- (2) a teacher trips over some crutches which had been placed in an awkward location,
- (3) a pupil interrupts a teacher who is working with another child,
- (4) a child's work is not finished when the rest of the class has finished an assignment,
- (5) a pupil has not located the prescribed textbook and page number,
- (6) one child has not yet started an assignment while another child at the same table is hurriedly trying to finish,
- (7) a teacher talks with a child who has repeatedly been without a pencil, and
- (8) a teacher enters the classroom while two children are gleefully and noisily flipping their pencils off the edges of their desks.

Each of the eight situations was then rehearsed both in a helpful and a non-helpful manner. In this way two separate versions would be produced based upon identical classroom situations. Only the teachers' reactions to the incidents would differ in the contrasting helpful and non-helpful segments of the video tape.

Before producing the film, guidelines were set out for the actors. The actor teachers were told that the following characteristics would be used to classify teacher responses as helpful or non-helpful.

(1) Empathic Understanding

a. A teacher is being helpful when he attempts to under-

stand the reasons for and feelings behind the situation at hand and responds with consideration for those facts.

b. A teacher is being non-helpful when he reacts impatiently, either giving the child no opportunity to explain or disregarding the child's attempts to explain his situation. He conveys a lack of interest for the child's feelings and reacts from his own rather than from the child's frame of reference.

(2) Respect

a. A teacher responds helpfully when he deals with a problem objectively. He is concerned with finding a rational approach to the difficulty and carries it out in a manner which will enhance and support the child's self-respect and self worth. He does not equate academic or behavior problems with a decrease in the child's value as an unique human being.

b. A teacher responds in a non-helpful manner when he uses the child's mistakes or misconduct as an opportunity for attacking the child personally. His approach is often accompanied by threats, sarcasm, and degrading remarks.

(3) Concreteness

a. A teacher responds to a child in a helpful manner when he refers to specific examples of the child's behavior which are in error or in some way are not acceptable.

b. A non-helpful approach in dealing with a child is to use broad generalizations regarding the child's behavior and/or his character.

These criteria were adapted for the purposes of this study from the Carkhuff scales (1969) for empathic understanding, respect, and concreteness in therapeutic helping relationships.

During rehearsal and taping the actor teachers used these three characteristics in the helpful and non-helpful modes. Each segment was rehearsed spontaneously. No attempt was made to control precisely the extent to which each of these characteristics of helpfulness was utilized. Instead, the primary intent in producing the film was to illustrate contrasting attitudes and approaches to children in the classroom.

During the videotaping a situation was reproduced, recorded and repeated until the result was considered satisfactory for the purposes of the study. Those sequences which best depicted positive examples of the characteristics (empathic understanding, respect and concreteness) or negative examples of these characteristics were selected for the master tape.

The resulting video tape consisted of two parts, one "helpful" and one "non-helpful". Each part was approximately seven minutes in length. One half of the video tape was composed of eight helpful situations while the other half was composed of eight non-helpful situations. Five situations from each half involved a female teacher and two of her students (one male and one female student) while three situations in each version focused upon a male teacher and two students (one male and one female). The predominance of female teacher over male teacher examples of classroom incidents was considered justified since the subjects in the study were from elementary schools in which the male to female ratio was approximately 1:3.

The order of presentation for the situations was chosen randomly and duplicated on a master tape. The helpful segments of the resulting tape were then combined to provide the symbolic helpful teacher models for the helpful treatment group. The non-helpful half of the tape provided the models of non-helpful teacher behavior.

Film Validation

Four male counsellors participated as judges to rate the face validity of the helpful and non-helpful film sequences. Three of these were experienced elementary school counsellors and one was a junior high school counsellor. They were chosen to judge because of their general familiarity with helping relationships.

Four characteristics (1) empathic understanding, (2) respect, (3) concreteness, and (4) general evaluation, were rated on a seven point scale for each of the eight helpful and non-helpful video-taped incidents (Appendix A). Low scores were to be given for non-helpful attributes of each characteristic and high scores for helpful attributes as defined previously.

Each judge was given explanatory information approximately seven hours before viewing the tapes for evaluation (Appendix A). Once they had assembled for rating, the judges were given an additional summary of scoring criteria to supplement the validation answer sheets (Appendix B).

The validity of the video tape was determined by percentage agreement. The agreement criterion was whether a judge designated a rating of five or more for a scale in the helpful sequences and three or less for the non-helpful situations.

For all scales a percentage agreement of 89% was obtained. A greater percentage of agreement was obtained for the non-helpful sequences (91%) than for the helpful sequences (86%).

In both versions of the film the actor was seen as being more extreme in his portrayal of helpful ($\bar{x} = 6.1$) and non-helpful ($\bar{x} = 1.4$) teacher behaviors on the seven point scale. Even so, the female teacher, too, was successful in acting contrasting approaches ($H = 5.9$; $N = 2.3$).

Analysis of the ratings obtained indicate that a contrast between the behaviors of the helpful ($\bar{x} = 6.04$) and non-helpful ($\bar{x} = 1.93$) teacher models was clearly evident. A summary of judges ratings for all sequences can be seen in Table I.

Variation was observed among sequence means for all scales, however, this was considered irrelevant to the intention of the film in depicting contrasting behavior models. The treatment film of teacher helpful and non-helpful behaviors was shown to differ considerably in the two parts of the video tape; hence, the video tape of teacher models was considered to be a good illustration of helpful and non-helpful teacher behavior.

The Sample

Subjects for the study were randomly selected from among 459 grade two pupils. Their mean age was eight years and five months at the time the experiment took place. Approximately one month before the study was to take place, parents of the children were mailed a letter (Appendix C) in which the study was explained and permission for their children to participate was requested.

TABLE I

MEAN SCORES FOR JUDGED HELPFULNESS OF HELPFUL
AND NON-HELPFUL VIDEO TAPE SEQUENCES

Helpful Sequences	Empathic Understanding	Respect	Concreteness	General Evaluation
1	5.50	5.50	5.00	5.00
2	5.75	5.50	6.50	5.50
3	6.75	6.50	6.75	6.75
4	6.33	6.33	6.75	6.33
5	6.50	7.00	6.75	6.75
6	5.50	5.33	6.50	5.75
7	6.50	6.33	6.00	6.50
8	5.50	5.50	5.33	5.33
Non-Helpful Sequences				
1	1.75	1.00	2.50	1.75
2	2.00	2.00	2.50	2.00
3	2.00	2.00	2.50	2.33
4	3.33	2.75	3.00	2.33
5	1.33	1.33	2.33	1.33
6	1.33	1.50	1.75	2.00
7	1.00	1.00	1.33	1.00
8	1.75	1.50	2.50	3.00

Judges N = 4

Mean rating of helpful sequences on all scales = 6.04

Mean rating of non-helpful sequences on all scales = 1.93

Scoring was based upon a seven point scale.

Of the 48 whose parents indicated that their children could participate on the appointed days, only 43 actually appeared. This situation occurred despite the fact that the parents were mailed appointment reminders (Appendix D) and were telephoned the evening before their children were to take part.

Treatment

Experimental Setting

Arrangements were made for subjects to be brought by taxi in small groups to the building where the experiment was to take place (Appendix E).

As each group of subjects arrived, they were greeted by a child of similar age who took them to a waiting area. In the waiting area each child was given eight poker chips. He was told that these chips could be exchanged for candy and gum at the end of his visit. Books were available in the waiting area.

Each subject was then taken in turn upstairs to a classroom area where he viewed the prescribed treatment film. After viewing the film, the child was taken to a television studio. On the way to the studio, his escort told him that he was being taken to another waiting area where he could play. He was told that this room was also a studio where school films are made, where cameras are kept and where he would find men working on camera equipment.

Once the criterion measures were tested and video tape recorded in the television studio, each subject was taken to a classroom area where a questionnaire was administered individually by female adult assistants (Appendix F).

All procedures taking place in the setting explained above lasted approximately thirty-five minutes.

(1) film - 8 minutes

(2) student escort - 2 minutes

(3) testing period - 10 minutes

(4) question period - 15 minutes

Total - 35 minutes

After the questions were answered, the subject was taken to a room where chips could be exchanged for an assortment of candy and gum. Once the child had been helped to exchange the chips for candy and gum, the children went outside to play under supervision until each subject in the group had completed the series of activities and the taxi had arrived to return them to their homes.

Treatment Procedure

Each subject was shown individually a video tape or a filmstrip. Those children in the helpful model group ($N = 15$) viewed the helpful version of the video tape depicting helpful teacher models in eight situations. Subjects assigned to the non-helpful treatment group ($N = 14$) viewed the appropriate version of the video tape. Subjects assigned to the control group ($N = 14$) viewed a narrated filmstrip about children in Switzerland (SVE - Boys and Girls of Many Lands, "Anthony & Maria of Switzerland"). The purpose of this film was to control for the amount and kind of interaction that had taken place with the children in the treatment conditions.

Measures UsedBehavioral Tests

In the studio where each child was taken, three cameras were arranged to record on video tape what had transpired while each subject was in the room. The first was focused on a table where an assortment of books and play materials were available, the second was focused on a tall, old fashioned clothes tree where a coat or sweater was hung and the third was aimed at a table where a colorful box, a small tray of chips, a pen, pieces of paper and a display of pictures was arranged. Behind the studio was located a control room where technicians operated the cameras as the action took place.

When each child entered the studio, he found either a four year old boy or girl playing at the table under the supervision of an eleven year old girl, all of whom were confederates of the investigator. Half of the subjects encountered a male and half encountered a female younger child at this point. This procedure was included to control for the sex of the subject and the sex of the child he would have an opportunity to help. Each subject was asked to sit at a designated chair and to wait until a lady upstairs was ready to ask some questions.

Soon afterwards the eleven year old girl commented to the young confederate that she would have to leave for awhile. Through viewing on the control room monitors, the investigator determined when each subject had had time to look over the studio situation and had become interested in an activity at the table. At this point the eleven year old girl was instructed to enter the studio and say to the young child, "_____, (name) it's time for you to go now. Hurry and get your

coat so we can leave." The eleven year old girl then left the studio and returned in one minute.

Because the four year old actor and actress did not fully understand the importance of playing the role exactly the same way each time, and because their willingness to cooperate fluctuated, some subjects remained alone with the young child longer than one minute during this part if, for instance, the actor did not leave the table immediately to do the prescribed activities which were to follow.

When the girl left the room, the young child was to drop some playing cards on the floor which he or she had intended to take along when leaving. After picking these up (if help was not offered), the child went over to the coat stand to attempt silently to get the coat until the subject had helped to get it down or until the eleven-year-old returned to retrieve it. Thus, during this one minute period, each subject was tested on two dependent measures: (1) offering help in picking up the playing cards, and (2) offering help in removing the coat.

After the 60 second testing period the eleven year old confederate re-entered the room and removed the coat from the rack if the subject had not already done so. She then accompanied the actor or actress out of the studio.

Each subject was then left alone at the table. The coordinator appeared a few minutes later to escort him to the room where questions would be asked. At this time the third dependent measure, (3) donating chips to charity, was introduced by the statements which follow.

Well, _____, (name) I think it's about time for the lady upstairs to ask you some questions. But first I'd like to show

you something over here. (Gently directs child to display table.)

You see these pictures? (Points to mounted pictures behind display table). They are pictures of children who went to crippled children's summer camp last year. This year if you'd like to help a crippled child from Sherwood Park go to summer camp, you could donate some of your chips here.

And over here (quickly moving attention to colorful box) if you write your first and last name on this paper and put it into the box, you may win this puppet. At the end of the week a name will be drawn from this box and one of the children who helped us here at Broadmoor School will win the puppet.

So after you've written your name and have decided whether you want to give any of your chips, I'll meet you down that hallway and introduce you to the lady who will ask you the questions. Okay?

Fine, I'll meet you down the hall.

The purpose of the name draw was to give the coordinator an opportunity to leave the studio while the subject began writing his name. Because giving behaviors have been shown to be influenced by surveillance (Liebert & Poulos, 1971; Poulos & Liebert, 1972) this factor was thereby controlled in this manner. By the time he had finished writing his name, no one would be watching to see whether or not he had given any chips to the crippled children's summer camp fund.

Eight chips were already placed in the tray so that it would appear that other children had already given and that his contribution or lack of one would not be readily noticed. The coordinator, however, counted the chips after taking the child to the female interviewer as a double check for the number of chips a child had donated. Those chips which the subject had given were removed so that the number of chips in the donation tray remained constant for each subject.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire devised by the investigator (Appendix G) was used to test the results of the secondary purposes of the study. These purposes were to determine the verbal modeling effect in the helpful and non-helpful groups and to determine the extent to which subjects were aware of a norm of social responsibility in situations where help is socially appropriate.

The first section of this questionnaire required each subject to ascribe quotations to characters in cartoon situations. These cartoons were adapted from McCarley's Ego State Inventory (1971) for the purposes of this study. Each subject was shown six pictures in random order which depicted typical, everyday situations. In each case the child was asked to explain what was taking place and what the characters in each picture were saying. The children's responses were subsequently judged according to criteria adapted from those used to evaluate the helpful and non-helpful teacher responses in the treatment video tape (empathic understanding, respect, concreteness). In this way an attempt was made to determine whether the treatment films had had a modeling effect upon the children's verbal responses to situations in which helpfulness could be appropriate.

The second section of the questionnaire was devised to discover whether or not subjects would claim they would respond helpfully in everyday situations. Thus an attempt was made to determine whether their knowledge of the norms of social responsibility (of what they "should" do) corresponded to their actual behavior in the experimental situation.

The final section of the questionnaire was designed to determine informally to what extent the children in the helpful and non-helpful groups had attended to the video taped models, their opinions of the teachers viewed and how life-like the classroom situations had appeared to them.

Analysis of Data

Each subject's behavior in the criterion situations was recorded on video tape. Later independent judges rated these responses to determine whether or not help had been given in retrieving the cards and removing the coat.

Donation responses were determined by the number of chips donated as well as whether or not the subjects had donated. Thus, donation responses could be recorded at the time of the experiment by the assistants taking part. Children's behaviors while donating, however, were also recorded on video tape for further validation and analysis.

Actor Persistency

Since the behavioral test of a helping response relied so heavily upon the situation in which a child actor or actress was displaying his need for help, the great possibility existed that the lack of significant difference between means and low number of helping responses elicited could be accounted for by the variable of actor's effectiveness.

Because of this possibility a scale was devised to determine the variability of the acting across observations and its persuasiveness. The resulting Actor Persistence Scale (Appendix H) was used as well by seven teacher judges. The acting performances were scored on this five point scale for each of the observations in which help had not been given.

Actor Persistence Scale

No Attempt to Remove Coat	Slight Attempt to Remove Coat	Very Persistent Attempt
1	2	3

Those instances in which help had been given were not rated since the actor's persuasiveness had already been determined. In the analysis of the data, such instances were given a five (5) rating.

Correlations among judges' opinions of actor persistence was high (mean $r = .74$; range = $.50-.85$). Therefore, it seems apparent with a substantial degree of confidence ($p < .001$) that similar criteria were used by all judges to rate this acting attribute.

Results of these scores indicate that total actor and actress persistence was only slight ($\bar{x} = 3.12$). The mean obtained for the girl's attempts was greater than for the boy's ($g = 3.50$; $b = 2.76$). When ratings are analyzed for those instances in which help was not given, however, the girl appears to be only slightly more persistent ($\bar{x} = 3.17$) than the boy ($\bar{x} = 2.76$). Such a comparison would be justified if the help offered was not related to the actress's degree of persistency.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data collected in the experimental setting was analyzed statistically, where appropriate. Results of the analyses are described in this chapter. A discussion is also included to provide possible explanations for rejection of hypotheses tested.

Helping Behavior

Hypothesis I was stated previously as follows:

Subjects exposed to the helpful teacher models will aid a younger child in picking up cards which have been dropped significantly more often than those exposed to the non-helpful models.

The erratic performance of the young actor and actress made testing of this hypothesis impossible. At times the task of dropping the playing cards was forgotten completely and at other times the cards appeared to be brushed from the table too intentionally. Furthermore, viewing the videotaped documentation of the study later indicated that only rarely did the subjects take obvious notice that the event had taken place. Thus this test was considered inappropriate and invalid. No systematic attempt was made to evaluate the subjects' reactions to this opportunity to help. Thus, Hypothesis I could not be accepted.

Hypothesis II was stated previously as follows:

Children in the helpful experimental group will offer aid to a younger child in removing a coat from a high location significantly more often than those in the non-helpful group.

For each of the 43 subjects, the actor and actress did attempt to reach the coat; therefore Hypothesis II could be tested. Experimental results, however, failed to support the directional hypothesis since only six subjects did help in removing the coat.

Inspection of Table II indicates that the treatments may have had some effect, but the number helped was so small in each group that this fact could be accounted for by chance alone ($\chi^2 = 2.84$ n.s.). Therefore, Hypothesis was rejected at the 0.05 level of confidence.

Three other hypotheses were also related to helping behaviors. These were stated previously as follows:

Hypothesis V

Children will help a child of the same sex significantly more often than a child of the opposite sex.

Hypothesis VI

Children who are the oldest in the family constellation will help and donate significantly more often than those who are later borns.

Hypothesis IX

Helpful teacher behaviors have the potential to elicit helpful behaviors from the child toward his peers.

Because so few subjects offered help in removing the coat, Hypotheses V and VI were also rejected. The fact that three boys and three girls offered help to the actress also indicates further evidence to reject Hypothesis V.

The results obtained for the two tests of helping behavior described previously lead to the rejection of Hypothesis IX.

TABLE II

FREQUENCY OF HELP OFFERED

	Treatment Group		
	Helpful	Non-Helpful	Control
Help	2	3	1
No Help	13	11	13
Total	15	14	14

$$\chi^2 = 2.84, \text{ n.s.}$$

$$df = 2$$

Donating Behavior

Hypothesis III was stated previously as follows:

Subjects in the helpful group will donate significantly more poker chips to charity than those in the non-helpful group.

The results of a one way analysis of variance do not confirm this hypothesis at the 0.05 level of confidence.

Inspection of Table III, however, does indicate a definite trend for the children in the helpful group to donate more chips than in the control or non-helpful group. Only one subject gave more than three chips to the crippled children's fund. Since this donation was uncharacteristically large, eight chips, it was substituted for the most generous amount given among all groups, three chips, to account for the adjusted means for the non-helpful group in Table IV. This adjustment was made under the assumption that the subject's generosity was due to a misunderstanding of the directions given. If such an assumption can be made, not only is the generosity of the helpful group more apparent, but the differences among groups becomes more marked.

Table V which indicates the frequency of donations also reflects the trend mentioned previously. Although chi square for this table is not significant, ($\chi^2 = 3.88$; $df = 4$), it can be seen that the helpful group gave larger donations more often than the non-helpful group and gave more often than the other two groups.

Whether or not a donation had been given was also used as a basis for testing Hypothesis III. Although a one way analysis of variance rejects the hypothesis, inspection of Table VI further supports the tendency for the helpful group to be more generous.

TABLE III

TOTAL DONATIONS AND MEANS FOR DONATING BEHAVIOR

Treatment Group	N	Chips Donated	Mean Donations
Helpful	15	16	1.07
Non-Helpful	14	13	.93
Control	14	12	.86
Total	43	41	.96

TABLE IV
ADJUSTED DONATIONS, MEANS, VARIANCES AND STANDARD
DEVIATIONS FOR DONATING BEHAVIOR

Group	N	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation
Helpful	15	1.07	1.07	1.03
Non-Helpful	14	.57	.88	.94
Control	14	.86	1.21	1.10
Total	43	.84	1.02	1.01

TABLE V

FREQUENCY OF DONATING BEHAVIOR

Donation Size	Group			Total
	Helpful	Non-Helpful	Control	
≥ 2	6	2	5	13
1	3	3	1	7
0	6	9	8	23
Total	15	14	14	43

$\chi^2 = 3.88$, n.s.

df = 4

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF DONATING BEHAVIOR

Treatment Group	N	Frequency of Donation
Helpful	15	60%
Non-Helpful	14	35%
Control	14	42%
Total	43	46%

Thus, although Hypothesis VI was rejected at the .05 level of significance, the treatment effects did seem to affect donations in the direction predicted. It is evident that despite the fact that no donation behavior had been observed in the treatment films, a trend existed for the helpful group to donate more often and give a larger number of chips than the non-helpful or control groups. Furthermore, the non-helpful group donated less often and fewer chips more frequently than the control group.

Hence, the data tends to support Hypothesis III even though it cannot be accepted at a statistically significant level. Furthermore, the tendency evident among groups for the donation behavior also lends support to Hypothesis VII and Hypothesis VIII, when donating is considered a specific instance of helpful behavior.

Hypothesis VII was stated previously as follows:

Helping behaviors can be learned by young children.

Hypothesis VIII was stated previously as follows:

Classroom teachers are appropriate models for helping behaviors.

The fact that the helpful group tended to donate more frequently than the non-helpful and control groups, lends support to Hypotheses III, VII and VIII and suggests that behavior observed from teacher models has the potential for influencing behavior in new contexts.

Hypothesis VI was stated previously as follows:

Children who are the oldest in the family constellation will help and donate significantly more often than those who are later borns.

Results of a one way analysis of variance does not lend support for this hypothesis at the 0.05 level of confidence.

Questionnaire Responses

Cartoon Situations

Three judges were chosen to rate the questionnaire responses to the six cartoon situations (Appendix J). These judges were considered to be well qualified to rate helping responses because of their training and experience as counsellors.

A seven point scale defining helpful and non-helpful responses was used which incorporated the attributes of empathic understanding, respect, and concreteness. The extremes of the scale were defined in the following manner.

Verbal Helpfulness Scale

NON-HELPFUL

Non-helpful remarks display a great lack of sympathy for the person's situation and his feelings.

A disdainful lack of respect and/or cooperation is evident.

Broad accusations, threats and/or generalizations are used.

HELPFUL

Helpful remarks convey a sympathetic understanding of the situation and thoughtful consideration for the feelings of the person needing help.

An esteem for the person in need of help is shown which would enhance his sense of self worth and respect.

Specific references are made regarding the situation at hand.

Correlation among judges for subjects' responses to this part of the questionnaire varied considerably among the six situations (Range = .28-.78). Despite this fact, however, the probabilities of the t values associated with these correlations exceeded the .01 level

of significance for all situations except one (Situation 2). Therefore, the judges ratings were considered valid for five of the six cartoon situations and the appropriate hypothesis was tested for these responses.

Hypothesis IV had been stated previously as follows:

Children exposed to helpful teacher models will express significantly more helpful verbal responses to a questionnaire than those exposed to the non-helpful models.

On the basis of a one way analysis of variance for each of the five situations tested failed to accept this hypothesis.

Means for each situation (Table VII) indicate a low level of rated verbal helpfulness for all situations except one (Situation 5). It is assumed that the norm of social responsibility for this situation (adult helps child reach a coat) is so well defined that very few subjects would respond verbally in a non-helpful manner.

Inspection of Table VIII, however, indicates that although the means for each treatment group were very similar in Situation 5, a much greater variability of response was evident for the non-helpful and control groups than for the helpful group. Thus the tendency for higher rated responses was considerably more consistent in the helpful group which may reflect a treatment effect.

Only in Situation 3 (woman in grocery store with carton of broken eggs) did the analysis of variance approach significance ($p < .12$). Table IX indicates that such an outcome arose not because of a difference between means in the direction predicted so much as the amount of variability among responses for the non-helpful group in comparison to relatively consistent responses in the helpful group. It is possible, therefore, that the helpful teacher model did have the

TABLE VII

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR JUDGED VERBAL
HELPFULNESS IN CARTOON SITUATIONS

Situation	N = 43	Means	Standard Deviations
1		3.34	1.09
3		4.22	1.37
4		3.67	1.36
5		5.08	1.04
6		2.58	1.23

Scoring was based upon a seven point scale.

TABLE VIII

MEANS, VARIANCES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR
SITUATION FIVE ON JUDGED HELPFULNESS SCALE

Treatment Group	N	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation
Helpful	15	5.02	0.25	0.50
Non-Helpful	14	5.02	1.69	1.30
Control	14	5.19	1.67	1.29
Total	43	5.08	1.10	1.05

Scoring was based upon a seven point scale.

TABLE IX

MEANS, VARIANCES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR
SITUATION THREE ON JUDGED HELPFULNESS SCALE

Treatment Group	N	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation
Helpful	15	4.82	0.82	0.90
Non-Helpful	14	3.93	3.05	1.75
Control	14	3.88	1.65	1.29
Total	43	4.22	1.88	1.37

Scoring was based upon a seven point scale.

effect of influencing subjects in the helpful group to view the situation with more equanimity. Similarly, the more volatile verbal behavior of the non-helpful teacher models may be seen as reflected in the variability of responses for subjects exposed to non-helpful teacher models. The group mean for this situation also suggests a slightly greater degree of verbal helpful behavior as well (where 4 = neither negative nor positive) for subjects exposed to the helpful teacher model. Thus, for Situation 3 evidence is available which tends to support Hypothesis IV.

Awareness of Social Responsibility

Answers to the questionnaire section entitled "What Would You Do If?" indicated a very high degree of helpfulness in hypothetical situations. The lowest percentage obtained for any question was 89%. Helpfulness was determined by an indication of intervening in a way which would benefit the child in distress. Therefore, it was concluded that children of this age group are aware of a norm of social responsibility in situations similar to those in the criterion measures. Furthermore, a knowledge of appropriate helpful behaviors in these situations is in their repertory of responses despite the lack of significant helpfulness evident in the experimental setting.

Even more significant to this study is the fact that the highest percentage of helpful responses obtained were for questions which most closely resembled the situations encountered in the criterion tests. When asked what they would do if a child had dropped his papers on the way home from school, 93% said that they would help the child pick up the papers.

When the children were asked what they would do if they saw a girl or boy much younger than themselves trying to reach a toy on a high shelf, 100% responded by saying that they would help get the toy. It is therefore evident that the subjects were very much aware of appropriate helpful responses especially in situations closely resembling those encountered during the experiment.

Effectiveness of Video Tape

In no instance was it apparent that a subject had not paid attention to the video tape he had watched. All subjects but one indicated that the video tape resembled what might really take place in school. Every subject, furthermore, recalled correctly the type of teachers which the video tapes portrayed. "Nice", "mad", "grouchy" and "mean" were the common descriptions given appropriately for the teacher models. Thus, the questionnaire indicated that the video tape was effective in capturing the subjects attention. Children were able to recall details relevant to positive and negative pupil and teacher behavior and judged the films as being realistic.

Ancillary Findings

During the course of the experiment, the investigator as well as the technicians operating the cameras in the control room noted that children often appeared to be very close to helping the young child but then did not. These observations seemed to indicate the possibility that help was almost given even though the gross behavior was not carried out. Since the unfamiliar surroundings may have inhibited the children from offering help, it was considered worthwhile to score less

obvious manifestations of helping behavior as well. Thus, the Intention to Help (Appendix H) scale was devised for analyzing the observations recorded.

Seven elementary school teachers participated as judges to rate the video-taped responses. These teachers were chosen because of their experience and familiarity with children in the primary grades which offers them a daily opportunity to view and evaluate children's behavior. Thus, they were considered to be well-qualified judges for this portion of the study.

Explanatory information was given to these teacher judges several hours before the first rating session took place (Appendix H). This information included a general summary of what had taken place prior to the video taping of the behavior they would be judging. Operational definitions of the scale and its scoring were also explained. In addition, the answer sheets which were provided once judging began (Appendix I) included a summary of the criteria for the scale. One response was recorded for each subject on the five point scale.

Intention to Help Scale

No Intention To Help	Slight Intention To Help	Seemed Very Close To Helping
1	2	3

Intention to help was scored only for those subjects who had not offered aid. The six subjects who had helped to remove the coat were given a score of six (6) in the analysis of the results. Because of technical difficulties encountered during the video tape recording of

responses, only the last twenty-nine (29) subjects who took part in the study could be rated on this scale. Thus, the analyses reported for this measure were not based upon the entire sample.

An extremely high degree of correlation among judges' ratings was obtained for the Intention to Help scale. The range of correlations was .80-.91 with a mean $r = .85$. Furthermore, the probabilities for all t values associated with the correlations were $<.000001$. Therefore, with a high degree of confidence it seemed apparent that judges were using similar criteria for their decisions.

Thus, the Intention to Help Scale was devised to provide further information for testing hypotheses related to helping behavior.

Hypothesis II had been stated previously as follows:

Children in the helpful experimental group will offer aid to a younger child in removing a coat from a high location significantly more often than those in the non-helpful group.

One way analysis of variance for the treatment effects did not indicate significant differences between groups for this scale. Therefore Hypothesis II could not be accepted for the intentions to help criteria.

Results of judging on the Intention to Help Scale did not indicate any significant differences for sex in a one way analysis of variance.

Judging on the Intention to Help Scale did, however, provide near significant results to reject Hypothesis VI. This hypothesis was stated previously as follows:

Children who are the oldest in the family constellation will help and donate significantly more often than those who are later borns.

One way analysis of variance for Intention to Help and sibling relationship was significant at the .08 level (Table X). Near significance was thus reached in supporting the negative contention: later borns tend to be more helpful than first borns.

Observing children's donation behavior in this study indicated a variety of responses during their decision to donate. Since it was possible that knowing the degree to which children in the three groups displayed hesitancy in making this decision, another scale was devised called Intention to Donate (Appendix H).

Intention to Donate Scale

No Intention to Donate	Slight Consideration Given	Seemed Very Near to Donating
1	2	3

The seven teacher judges described previously for the Intention to Help Scale rated children's responses on this scale as well.

Correlation among judges was extremely high for Intention to Donate. The range of correlation obtained was .73-.95. Mean correlation was $r = .89$. Furthermore, all probabilities of t values associated with these correlations were <.0000001. Thus, interrater reliability for this scale was judged to be extremely high.

For purposes of analysis, a rating of six (6) was given to those subjects who did donate so that all subjects would be included in the calculations. Thus, an interpretation of the analysis would be tendency to donate.

Hypothesis III was stated previously as follows:

TABLE X

MEANS, VARIANCES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 FOR INTENTION TO HELP AND SIBLING RELATIONSHIP

Group	N	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation
Oldest	11	2.06	1.82	1.35
Later Borns	18	3.16	2.83	1.68
Total	29	2.74	2.56	1.60

Analysis of Variance

	S.S.	M.S.	df	F	P
Groups	0.8118	8.12	1	3.30	0.08
Error	0.6634	2.46	27		

Scoring was based upon a five point scale.

Subjects in the helpful group will donate significantly more poker chips to charity than those in the non-helpful group.

A one way analysis of variance for Intention to Donate and treatment groups did not lend further evidence to support Hypothesis III. A comparison of means, however, (Table XI) does indicate that subjects in the helpful treatment group were more inclined to donate than those in the non-helpful or control groups, thus lending some support for Hypothesis III. Furthermore, despite the fact that the actual donations in the non-helpful group, as indicated previously, were fewer and less frequent than the helpful or control groups, on this scale the control group appeared to be the least inclined to donate.

One way analysis of variance indicated no significant differences between sex or sibling relationship for Intention to Donate.

Discussion

Helping Behavior

If actor persistency can be interpreted as an indication of the actor and actress's persuasiveness in indicating need for help, the acting which took place in this study was judged as being unconvincing. Thus actor ineffectiveness in portraying need for help (lack of dependence shown) may have been the cause for the non-significant results of this test.

Then, too, the fact that the eleven-year-old confederate was seen with the young child, may have added an element of uncertainty as to whether the older child would return to help and whether help was

TABLE XI

MEANS, VARIANCES, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR
TREATMENT GROUPS ON INTENTION TO DONATE

Treatment Group	N	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation
Helpful	15	4.55	3.84	1.96
Non-Helpful	14	4.00	3.52	1.88
Control	14	3.63	5.04	2.24
Total	43	4.07	3.98	2.00

Scoring was based upon a six point scale.

really necessary (Staub, 1970a; 1970b; 1971b). If, the decision to help took longer because of the child's being alone in an unfamiliar environment with no other child to help define the meaning of the events when the norms are unclear (Darley & Latane', 1968; Staub, 1971b), more time may have been needed to decide. On the other hand, since the child may have not been able to determine what was the socially responsible thing to do in this instance (the older child may or may not return, the older child may or may not be glad that help was given) and thus the subjects may have considered it safer to do nothing. Fear of disapproval for inappropriate behavior (Staub, 1970a) and lack of cues given to define the norm of responsibility (Staub, 1970b) may have thus inhibited the effect that a helpful model might otherwise have facilitated.

On the other hand, the need for help in the situation presented was not urgent enough to require immediate attention. Therefore, not acting would not have severe consequences for the young child even if help were not given (Darley & Latane', 1968).

Another possibility for a lack of help offered in this situation may have been the reasoning, "If he put it up there, he can get it down." People who are perceived as responsible for their need for help are helped less than those not so perceived (Shopler & Matthews, 1965).

Since there is considerable evidence that neither the boy's nor the girl's attempts to reach the coat were judged as being persistent, the need for help simply may not have been convincing. If so, the question arises: Why was the actress helped in each instance rather than the actor? One explanation for this might be the fact that

females are taught to take a passive role (Sears, et. al., 1957) and the actress may have been perceived as being more helpless and thus more dependent in this study as well. Berkowitz's studies (Berkowitz & Conner, 1966; Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963, 1964) which show a relationship between the degree of dependence and help given would be relevant. By means of the same explanation, the reason for the lack of helpful responses throughout the study may have been a lack of display of dependence, if the actor persistency ratings could be interpreted in this way. Furthermore, Horowitz (1968) also indicated in a study that when there is a high degree of choice as to whether help will be given, which was true in the present investigation, adults tend to help those who are by nature weak and dependent more than those who are dependent because of circumstances.

Next, the question might be raised as to whether the length or frequency of exposure to the model was adequate to effect significant results. Exposure on one trial only has been shown on several occasions to influence children's helping (Staub, 1970a) and giving responses (Elliott & Vasta, 1970; Harris, 1970; Midlarsky & Bryan, 1967; Poulos & Liebert, 1972; Rosenhan & White, 1967). Some of these studies used a film model exposed to the subjects for a similar length of time (Bryan & Walbek, 1970a, 1970b; Liebert, 1972). Furthermore, results of at least one study had relatively long-term effects (4-5 weeks) despite only one exposure (Bandura & Mischel, 1965).

The circumstances in this experiment, however, were not identical to those in any of the studies cited above. In addition, these studies were designed to investigate a model's effect in similar situations

rather than the model's effect generalized to new situations. Thus, the results of the present study may suggest that generality of modeling influences for children's helping and giving behaviors requires more frequent and/or longer exposure to those models.

An additional factor may have contributed in impeding the effectiveness of the modeling influences. Unforeseen circumstances necessitated the unexpected presence of technicians in the studio the entire week of testing for installation of equipment. They did not appear to interfere with the progress of the experiment, however, it was observed that the subjects in the study quite frequently turned to glance at these adults. The strong possibility exists that these glances were not out of curiosity for the technicians' work but were to help the subjects define an ambiguous situation.

Weinheimer (1972) has cited the inhibitory effect that adults have upon children. Piaget (1932) has also commented on the relationship of children with adults at this stage of their development as being one of constraint. Cooperative interactions seem to be facilitated best among peers with no adults present.

Then, too, these adults were not models of helpful behavior. Since most of these adults had been informed of the nature of the children's presence in the studio, they made no effort to interact with the children nor to help the younger child.

In one instance, however, an uninformed technician did begin approaching the actor to help remove the coat. The young actor in the experiment told him that he need not help since this was only a "game." Such spontaneous behavior on the part of the adult indicated the

possibility that in such a situation, the appropriate response would have been for the adult to help the child. Perhaps the subjects were looking to the adults to see if help would be offered.

Then, too, the fact that the technicians made no attempt to interact with the children may also have inhibited helping responses. A similar situation existed experimentally in a study by Latane' & Rodin (1969). Subjects were paired either with a stranger (a confederate of the experimenters) or a friend. Those who were paired with the stranger misinterpreted the ambiguous situation (smoke beginning to fill the room) as not being serious. Since the stranger showed no inclination to offer help, the subjects' assumed that he had assessed the situation as not being serious nor warranting action. Among friends, however, a significantly greater amount of help was offered. Friends looked to each other for guidance in defining the situation and were less likely to misinterpret each other's initial inaction.

Therefore, in the present study, the unintended variable of adults present in the experimental situation is seen as having a great possible inhibitory effect on the experimental treatments. The children were in a room with strangers. They may have looked to these adults for guidance before acting but did not help since these strangers made no effort to help the young child nor to define the situation for the subjects. The children's interpretation, then, could have been that the adult's lack of concern indicated no serious need for help.

Another inhibitory effect which is related to the presence of the adults is the division of responsibility reported by Darley & Latane' (1968). These investigators found that the amount of help given was inversely related to the size of the group. If it had been possible to conduct the present study as proposed, only one person would have been present to offer help, thus it would be expected that help would have been offered more frequently in the present study, as originally proposed.

Furthermore, if the actor and actress had been instructed to ask for help, this may have helped to define the social situation for the subject in making his decision. The young child in this manner would have indicated a greater urgency for help from his point of view and would have excluded the adults from the social responsibility to act. Because the presence of the adults was unexpected and impossible to eliminate and since the actor and actress had not practiced asking for help, the experimental procedures were carried out as planned before the study took place.

Although the Intention to Help Scale rejected Hypothesis VI at a near significant level ($p < 0.08$), the fact that later borns in this study indicated a greater inclination for helping than first borns does support related research.

Stotland (Stotland, 1969; Stotland & Dunn, 1963; Stotland & Walsh, 1963) reports that later borns, especially males, show more empathy towards others in distress than first borns or "onlys." Stotland's theory is based upon the fact that first borns enter a hierarchical environment in which differences between himself and his

parents are constantly emphasized. Later borns, on the other hand, enter a world in which there are at least some others, their siblings, who are similar to themselves in a variety of respects including size, status, knowledge and power. Later borns thus have greater opportunities to learn that those who are similar to themselves in some dimensions are likely to be similar in others as well. This argument leads to the proposition that later borns will empathize with those who are similar to them to a greater degree than first borns or only children.

As Stotland (1969) points out, feelings of empathy do not always give rise to helpful behavior towards another person. The Intention to Help Scale may have indicated, therefore, that later born children in the study did feel a greater sense of empathy towards the young child actor despite their lack of demonstrated help.

Donating Behavior

It was noted previously that the donating behaviors appeared to be more sensitive to the treatment variables than helping behaviors, although not significantly so. This could be accounted for by the fact that the two responses are independent and are mediated by different variables.

On the other hand, it seems apparent that the donating situation was more well-defined so that a decision to offer aid could be made more easily than in the helping situation. During the opportunity to donate the child alone possessed the chips to donate. The decision proposed was made directly to the child and did not allow for a diffusion of responsibility among the adults present.

Another possibility may be that a live model is necessary to influence donating behaviors. This possibility would be supported by

the study of Midlarsky & Bryan (1967) in which children who were exposed to a warm, affectionate adult gave significantly more donation responses (candy to needy children) than those who were exposed to no model or to a non-demonstrative model. Thus, the behavior of a live nurturant model has been shown to generalize to giving behaviors similar to those required for a donation response in the present study. A live rather than a symbolic model may be necessary for significant donating behavior to take place.

Results of the Intention to Donate scale showed that children in the helpful and non-helpful group appeared to give greater consideration for donating than did children who had viewed a filmstrip about Switzerland. If intention to donate can be interpreted as deliberation over the decision to donate, it would appear that the treatment films of teacher behavior may have aroused the awareness of a norm of social responsibility in these children. Thus, the models helpfulness or non-helpfulness may have influenced them to consider the situation more carefully. Furthermore, the fact that children in the non-helpful model group made fewer actual donations but showed greater intention to donate than the control group might indicate that a conflict situation had existed. Perhaps, their sense of social responsibility was aroused by the treatment film and accounted for the greater hesitancy shown in making a decision. The effect of the non-helpful teacher models may have then influenced them to resolve the conflict by choosing not to donate so often as the helpful group.

Therefore, in the view of the author, the possibility still exists that both the helping and donating behaviors tested in this

study may have common elements which could be influenced by the experimental conditions described. Unfortunately, limited funding and resources restricted the degree to which pilot studies and repetition of the final version of the study was possible.

Verbal Behavior

The fact that no significant correlation was found between subjects' responses to the cartoon situations and the models' verbal behaviors could be accounted for by the short, single exposure to the models. Bandura (1969a) has pointed out the fact that modeling verbal behavior for children requires repeated exposure and rehearsal. The type of verbal behavior required for a helpful response in the criterion measure was probably not in the child's repertory of verbal behavior; therefore, the model could not have a facilitative effect. Instead, learning a new mode of language behavior would have been required. Language learning of this type would undoubtedly require repeated exposure and practice because of the complexity of this task.

Two studies (Bandura & Harris, 1966; Lovaas, et. al., 1966) have indicated that children's speech patterns can be altered through modeling procedures, but such learning requires reinforcement contingencies and more elaborate discrimination cues than were provided in the present experiment.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary and Conclusions

The thesis upon which the present study was based was that the behavior of helpful teacher models in classroom situations can be generalized to influence children's helping and donating behaviors in other contexts.

Grade two children were randomly assigned to one of three groups (1) helpful, (2) non-helpful, and (3) control. The helpful treatment group viewed a video tape illustrating helpful teacher models interacting with children in eight classroom situations. The non-helpful treatment group viewed the teacher models responding to identical classroom situations in a non-helpful manner. The control group viewed a narrated filmstrip unrelated to classroom behavior.

Subjects in each group were then placed in an experimental situation which offered three opportunities to give aid to other children. These were: (1) helping a younger child pick up playing cards that had been dropped, (2) helping a younger child get a coat which had been placed too high for him to reach, and (3) donating poker chips to a fund for crippled children. A questionnaire was also administered to determine whether the teacher models' verbal behaviors had been modeled and whether children were aware of the norm of helpfulness in similar situations.

None of the hypotheses tested was accepted at a 0.05 level of significance. A trend in the predicted direction, however, was observed for donating behavior. Near significance was obtained to reject the hypothesis related to helping behavior and sibling status. This outcome was based on an Intention to Help Scale and lends support to research indicating that later borns display a greater degree of empathy towards others perceived as similar than do first borns.

Additional findings from a questionnaire indicated that the children participating in the study were aware of the norms of social responsibility in similar situations despite their lack of helpful behavior in the experimental situation. No significant effect was found for teacher model behavior and children's subsequent verbal responses to hypothetical helping situations.

Thus, the basic thesis proposed by the present study was not supported at a statistically significant level.

One explanation for the lack of significant results may be an apparent lack of relationship between moral knowledge, and moral behavior and a model's effectiveness in eliciting the behavior. Another reason may have been that children require lengthier and/or more frequent exposure to teacher models before generalizations of the type required in this study are possible. Another possibility which is best substantiated by results of previous research is the inhibitory effect of adults which were present in the testing situation.

Despite the fact that no clearly significant results arose from the present investigation, several outcomes emerged which could suggest directions for further experimentation in this area of research.

Implications for Further Studies

First, if this experiment were to be repeated, care should be taken that professional children actors be used or that the non-professional actor be trained to use specified methods in reaching the coat. In this way, perhaps, the need for help may be more apparent. Another modification would be to schedule the subjects in such a way that the child actor need not repeat his performance more than twice or three times in one testing session.

In addition, literature reviewed previously which indicated the possible influence of adults being present would dictate the importance of leaving the subjects alone with the actor or actress. If, however, adults were still necessary in the background for technical reasons, focussing the responsibility of the decision to help on the subject by having the actor request help would also appear to be an appropriate alteration.

Then, too, if the same treatment films were to be used, the teachers portrayed in them could possibly be more influential in the predicted direction if certain modifications in the treatment were introduced. Subjects could be given some instructions to focus their attention on the film before viewing it. In addition, occasional insertions of non-helpful models could be interspersed among the helpful model situations, for example, to provide contrast and cue discrimination. Such changes would be suggested by Bandura's (1969a) descriptions of methods which aid the focus of attention on a model.

On the other hand, this investigation could be considered a pilot study which might suggest other criterion measures to be refined

through additional pilot studies. A criterion situation could be devised in which a need for help is required but is of such a nature that fewer demands are placed upon the acting ability and stamina of the young child. A new situational context might also include more elements of similarity to the classroom situation portrayed in the treatment films. This alteration might facilitate the cognitive shift from the adult-child relationship to the child-child relationship. Similarly, the treatment film could be altered in such a way that an event which has elements in common with the donating behavior could either be expressed verbally or carried out in the actions of the teacher.

For significant effects to be evident in children's verbal helping behaviors, however, fairly elaborate training methods are required to teach children responses which are defined as helpful by the criteria in this study. The subjects would probably have to be induced to pay attention to the verbal modeling cues and be taught to discriminate between helpful and non-helpful statements to acquire the criteria rules for such responses. Rewarding the subjects for desired helpful verbal behavior would further increase the likelihood that these novel responses would be acquired.

Children's answers to the questionnaire would suggest further investigation into their understanding of social responsibility. Reasons given for the necessity of being helpful in certain situations appeared to fall into a limited number of categories which could be analyzed according to various theories of cognitive and social development.

Implications for Teachers and Counsellors

Apart from the experimental changes suggested, this study also suggests several implications for teachers and counsellors. First, these or similar treatment films could be used as a teaching aid in guiding teachers and counsellors to learn listening, verbal and behavioral skills which would enhance their helping role in the school setting. Dinkmeyer (1970) expresses the need for teachers to learn, to listen and to empathize with the experiences of their students. Ginott (1972) also urges teachers to learn a language of acceptance, compassion and respect which embodies attributes similar to those described in this study as "helpful."

Next, inservice training of the experienced teacher or instruction in these skills during the university preparation for teachers would have the potential for augmenting the work of the counsellor. The teacher's role in guidance would be made more apparent. Teachers could learn to be more sensitive to the educational and personal needs of their students. Such understanding of the student would facilitate the early identification of and solution to student problems. If specialized help is required for the child, maintaining a relationship in the classroom in which empathic understanding, concreteness and respect are prominent should result in a speedier solution to the child's difficulty.

Finally, the teacher as well as the counsellor would have more of a common basis upon which to interact with students. This, perhaps, could open up opportunities for the teacher and counsellor to cooperate in teaching similar skills to students. Such skills would have

potential, in turn, for fostering greater cooperation and understanding among peers as well as adults. Children could be taught interpersonal skills which might well be modeling cues for their parents to emulate.

Such speculation does, of course, require further investigation, study and implementation. It has, however, optimistic potential for applying counselling and psychotherapeutic techniques for the benefit of a variety of interpersonal relationships.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

VIDEO TAPE VALIDATION

You will be viewing simulations of sixteen classroom incidents. Following the viewing of each incident, you will be asked to rate whether the teacher showed (1) empathic understanding, (2) respect, and (3) concreteness in his behavior. In addition, you will rate whether the teacher's behavior, in general, was helpful or non-helpful. The extremes of each characteristic are defined below.

I. Empathic Understanding

Negative

The teacher does not express an attitude of empathic understanding towards the student. He disregards the child's feelings and the context in which the behavior took place. He acts impatiently, not giving the child an opportunity to explain the situation. His response is from his own rather than from the child's point of view.

Positive

The teacher expresses an attitude of empathic understanding toward the child. He recognizes and responds to the child's feelings. His responses indicate thoughtful consideration of the situational and emotional context in which the behavior took place.

II. Respect

Negative

The teacher expresses an obvious lack of respect for the child's worth as another human being. He uses his position of authority as a tool to attack the child personally. He responds, for example, with sarcasm, threats, and/or degrading remarks which would emphasize the child's inferior position.

Positive

The teacher responds to the child in a manner which would enhance the child's feeling of self worth. He recognizes the fact that the child is an unique individual, worthy of respect and concern. He does not equate academic or behavior problems with a decrease in the child's personal value. Instead, these are dealt with in a manner which indicates confidence in the child's potential.

III. Concreteness

Negative

The teacher deals with the child's difficulty by resorting to all-encompassing generalizations regarding the child's behavior and/or character. He responds with broad accusations and criticisms concerning the child's error.

Positive

The teacher deals with the child's error by referring to specific examples of the child's behavior and offers concrete suggestions to help improve the behavior or correct the error.

IV. General Evaluation

Non-Helpful

In general, the teacher responds to the children in a negative way so that a learning atmosphere is not enhanced.

Helpful

In general, the teacher responds to the children in a positive manner which would facilitate the learning process.

Each of these attributes will be rated on a seven point scale to identify the degree to which each characteristic was evident.

Negative

very negative

1

2

neither positive
or negative

3

4

5

very positive

6

7

Positive

APPENDIX B

VALIDATION ANSWER SHEET

SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTICS

I. Empathic Understanding

Negative

The teacher

- responds from his own point of view
- disregards the child's feelings
- disregards the context of the situation

Positive

The teacher

- recognizes and acknowledges the child's feelings
- indicates thoughtful consideration of the situation

II. Respect

Negative

The teacher

- expresses lack of respect for the child's worth
- makes inconsiderate use of his position of authority
- emphasizes the child's mistakes
- indicates low esteem for the child in light of his mistakes

Positive

The teacher

- endeavors to enhance the child's feeling of self worth
- focuses on the positive, the child's potentials
- does not equate the child's mistakes with a decrease in the child's worth

III. Concreteness

Negative

The teacher

- criticizes the child and his behavior in broad generalizations

Positive

The teacher

- gives specific examples of the child's behavior and suggests concrete solutions

IV. General Evaluation

Non-Helpful

The teacher's general behavior toward the child would not enhance a learning atmosphere.

Helpful

The teacher's general approach toward the child would facilitate the learning process.

VALIDATION ANSWER SHEET

Empathic Understanding

	very negative		neither negative or positive		very positive	
1	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	1	2	3	4	5	6

Respect

	very negative		neither negative or positive		very positive	
1	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	1	2	3	4	5	6

VALIDATION ANSWER SHEET

Concreteness

very negative

neither negative
or positive

very positive

1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

General Evaluation

very non-helpful

neither helpful
or non-helpful

very positive

1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

Dear Parent or Guardian:

June 30, 1972

Your child has been selected from the grade two students in Sherwood Park to take part in a study that we are conducting this summer. This study is designed to investigate how a teacher's classroom behaviour influences children's attitudes towards other children. As a result, our understanding of the effects of teacher-pupil interactions may be improved.

The children will be taken to the Instructional Materials Centre at Broadmoor School by taxi. They will be shown a six minute videotape recording of several classroom situations and their reactions will be studied. Each child will be away from home for approximately one hour. You will be contacted within a week by phone to arrange for your child's appointment. Your child will be cared for and adequately supervised during the time he is participating in the study. The results will be used only for research purposes and will, of course, be confidential.

In order that we may be sure that we are not proceeding contrary to your wishes as a parent, may we ask you to complete this form letter and return it in the envelope provided.

My child, _____, who is currently enrolled at _____ School has my permission to participate in the study being conducted at the IMC, with the understanding that he will be cared for and adequately supervised during that time.

Parent or Guardian's Signature

Home Address

Telephone Number

Date

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Gloria Rabenstein
School Counsellor
Mills Haven School

D. Sawatzky
Professor of Educational Psychology and
Chairman of the Supervisory Committee
for Masters Research of Mrs. Rabenstein

APPENDIX D

August 1, 1972

Dear Parent,

This note is to remind you that _____ will be picked up by taxi on _____, August _____, at _____ to take part in the study at Broadmoor School which you have been contacted about previously. Your child will be returned home again approximately an hour and a half later.

If for some reason your child is unexpectedly unable to attend, please notify me at least a day ahead of the appointment after 5 PM at 436-2225.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Gloria D. Rabenstein
School Counsellor
Mills Haven School

APPENDIX E

TAXI INSTRUCTIONS

1. Please pick up the children in each group in the order listed, if at all possible.
2. Begin picking up the first child in the group approximately ten minutes before the time written above. (E.g. begin picking up a 10:00 group at 9:50.)
3. Please call for the child at the door of his house since some may have forgotten about the appointment and may not be looking out the window for the taxi.
4. Where a babysitter's address is given, that is where the child is to be picked up.
5. All children are to be taken to Broadmoor School on Oak Street next to the Recreation Centre.
6. After you arrive at the Broadmoor School, please stay to take the children back home from the preceding group if there was one. These children will probably already be on the playground waiting.

Thanks a lot!

APPENDIX F

QUESTIONNAIRE

Page 1

Get acquainted fairly quickly. Then ask only their name and number of older and younger brothers and sisters.

After finishing Page 4, take them to the table to redeem their chips for candy, saying in a friendly way:

HOW MANY CHIPS DO YOU HAVE TO SPEND?

Since the total given to them in the beginning was eight (8), determine how many chips were donated and indicate this.

Page 2

Notice! All the pictures in each packet are arranged in a different order and none will come in the same order as on the answer sheet. Please write down the answer in the proper blank.

The plain white insert paper is to provide a more opaque background so that the next picture in the packet doesn't show through to make the picture confusing.

DO YOU SEE THIS PICTURE? YOU ARE GOING TO LOOK AT THIS PICTURE AND A FEW OTHERS. IN EACH THERE WILL BE TWO PEOPLE TALKING. THE ONE ON THE LEFT ALWAYS SPEAKS FIRST. THEN THE PERSON ON THE RIGHT REPLIES. I WANT YOU TO TELL ME WHAT IS HAPPENING IN EACH PICTURE THEN TELL ME WHAT YOU IMAGINE THE FIRST PERSON WOULD SAY AND THEN WHAT THE SECOND PERSON WOULD SAY.

If the child can't tell what is happening in the picture, note this on the answer sheet but explain the picture to him. Then ask what each person in the picture is saying.

Page 3

If you are not sure what the child means when he answers (unclear, incomplete, etc.), try to understand clearly what he means by asking:

COULD YOU TELL ME MORE ABOUT THAT? or PLEASE EXPLAIN THAT A BIT FURTHER.

Page 4

Some of the children will not have seen the film with the teachers in it so begin this page by asking:

DID YOU SEE A FILM ABOUT CHILDREN IN SWITZERLAND OR CHILDREN IN A CLASSROOM?

If they say the former, first ask them the last two questions.

Then help them "buy" their candy and tell them to play on the playground until the taxi comes to take them home. Escort them to the playground, then go to the waiting area to pick up the next child.

APPENDIX G

NAME _____

GROUP _____

AGE _____ / _____

SEX _____

No. older brothers and sisters _____

No. younger brothers and sisters _____

No. chips donated _____

WHAT IS HAPPENING IN THIS PICTURE? WHAT IS EACH PERSON SAYING?

1. Man	Boy with bat
2. Man pointing	Man smoking
3. Woman holding carton	Store clerk
4. Librarian	Girl Boy
5. Girl reaching	Man
6. Boy	Woman with broken lamp

WHAT WOULD YOU DO IF

You saw a child who had dropped his papers on the way home from school and the wind was starting to blow them around? Why?

You saw a little boy standing alone in a department store crying loudly? Why?

A girl/boy much younger than yourself was trying to reach a toy on a shelf very high on the wall of a kindergarten playroom? Why?

You saw a child your age crying in the hallway on the first day of school? Why?

You saw a boy in your grade three class hitting a little boy in grade one after school? Why?

What did you notice about the teachers in the film you saw? Anything else?

What kind of teachers were they? What do you mean by that?

Would you like them for your teachers? Why?

Did that film you saw look like what really happens in school? Why?

Anything else? _____

What do teachers do when they are being helpful?

What do teachers do to show you they like you?

APPENDIX H

EXPLANATION FOR JUDGES

You will be viewing video tapes of grade two children who were placed in an experimental situation this summer. Each child was shown one of three films. After watching a film individually, each was taken to a studio where he was asked to wait until he would be taken to another location to answer some questions. In this studio each eight year old encountered a four year old child playing at or near a table. After a short period of time, the young child was asked to get his coat to leave for home. At this point the children's behaviors were video taped.

You will be judging behavior in three situations which were then recorded: (1) the persistency of the actor or actress in attempting to remove the coat from the coat rack, (2) the degree to which the older child indicated intention to help the young boy or girl, and (3) the degree to which the older child indicated intention to donate tokens to charity a few minutes later.

RATING SCALES

I. Actor Persistency

The actor and actress were instructed to try very hard to remove the coat from the rack without actually doing so until someone came to get it for them.

Please indicate the degree to which the actor or actress persisted in following these instructions.

no attempt to remove coat	slight attempt to remove coat	very persistent attempt
1	2	3

4	5
---	---

II. Intention to Help

The child's intention to help will be judged by the degree to which behaviors are evident which indicate that a decision to help the other child was near. Behaviors such as looking in the direction of the young child, shuffling in his chair, moving his body towards the direction of the young child, moving to get up from the chair, etc. would indicate an approach in the direction of helping.

Please indicate the degree to which the intention to help was apparent.

no intention to help	slight interest evident	seemed very close to helping
1	2	3

4	5
---	---

III. Intention to Donate

The child's intention to donate will be judged by the degree to which the child appeared near to giving a token to charity but did not give. Behaviors such as looking at the display pictures, looking at the donation tray, checking the number of tokens in his hand, etc. would indicate that a decision to donate was being considered.

Please indicate to what degree the intention to donate was evident.

no intention to donate	slight consideration given	seemed very near to donating
1	2	3

4	5
---	---

APPENDIX I

II. Actor Persistence
The actor and actress were instructed to try very hard to remove the coat from the rack without actually doing so until someone came to get it for them. Please indicate the degree to which the actor or actress persisted in following these instructions.

II. Intention to Help
The child's intention to help will be judged by the degree to which behaviors indicate that a decision to help was near. Behavior such as looking in the direction of the child, shuffling in his chair, moving his body in the direction of the young child, moving to get up from the chair, etc. will be used for judging perceived intention to help.

II. Intention to Help		III. Intention to Donate	
		The child's intention be judged by the degree appeared near to giving not. Behaviors such as display pictures, looking tray, checking the number his hand, etc. would indicate decision to donate was be	The child's intention be judged by the degree appeared near to giving not. Behaviors such as display pictures, looking tray, checking the number his hand, etc. would indicate decision to donate was be
no intention	slight interest	very close	some consideration
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	5
1	2	3	6
1	2	3	7
1	2	3	8
1	2	3	9
1	2	3	10
1	2	3	11
1	2	3	12
1	2	3	13
1	2	3	14
1	2	3	15
1	2	3	16
1	2	3	17
1	2	3	18
1	2	3	19
1	2	3	20
1	2	3	21
1	2	3	22
1	2	3	23
1	2	3	24
1	2	3	25
1	2	3	26
1	2	3	27
1	2	3	28
1	2	3	29
1	2	3	30

III. Intention to Donate
The child's intention to donate will be judged by the degree to which the child appeared near to giving to charity but did not. Behaviors such as looking at the display pictures, looking at the donation tray, checking the number of tokens in his hand, etc. would indicate that a decision to donate was being considered.

RATING SCALES

I. Actor Persistence

	no attempt	slight	very persistent	no intention	slight interest	very close	no intention	some consideration	very near
1	2	3	4	5	31	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	32	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	33	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	34	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	35	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	36	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	37	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	38	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	39	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	40	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	41	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	42	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	43	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	44	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	45	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	46	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	47	4	5	3	5
1	2	3	4	5	48	4	5	3	5

II. Intention to Help

	no intention	slight	interest	very close	no intention	slight	interest	very close	no intention
31	1	2	3	4	31	1	2	3	4
32	1	2	3	4	32	1	2	3	4
33	1	2	3	4	33	1	2	3	4
34	1	2	3	4	34	1	2	3	4
35	1	2	3	4	35	1	2	3	4
36	1	2	3	4	36	1	2	3	4
37	1	2	3	4	37	1	2	3	4
38	1	2	3	4	38	1	2	3	4
39	1	2	3	4	39	1	2	3	4
40	1	2	3	4	40	1	2	3	4
41	1	2	3	4	41	1	2	3	4
42	1	2	3	4	42	1	2	3	4
43	1	2	3	4	43	1	2	3	4
44	1	2	3	4	44	1	2	3	4
45	1	2	3	4	45	1	2	3	4
46	1	2	3	4	46	1	2	3	4
47	1	2	3	4	47	1	2	3	4
48	1	2	3	4	48	1	2	3	4

III. Intention to Donate

	no intention	some consideration	very near
31	1	2	3
32	1	2	3
33	1	2	3
34	1	2	3
35	1	2	3
36	1	2	3
37	1	2	3
38	1	2	3
39	1	2	3
40	1	2	3
41	1	2	3
42	1	2	3
43	1	2	3
44	1	2	3
45	1	2	3
46	1	2	3
47	1	2	3
48	1	2	3

APPENDIX J

SITUATIONAL EVALUATIONS

You will be judging responses given for six, pictured social situations in an experimental study. These are to be judged on a seven point scale to determine to what extent helpfulness was expressed in the social exchange. Each response will be scored according to what extent the three attributes of empathic understanding, respect, and concreteness were expressed in a negative or positive manner. The extremes of each are defined below.

NON-HELPFUL

HELPFUL

Empathic Understanding

Remarks display a great lack of sympathy for the person's situation and his feelings.

Empathic Understanding

Remarks convey a sympathetic understanding of the situation and thoughtful consideration for the feelings of the person needing help.

Respect

A disdainful lack of respect and/or cooperation is evident.

Respect

An esteem for the person in need of help is shown which would enhance his sense of self worth and respect.

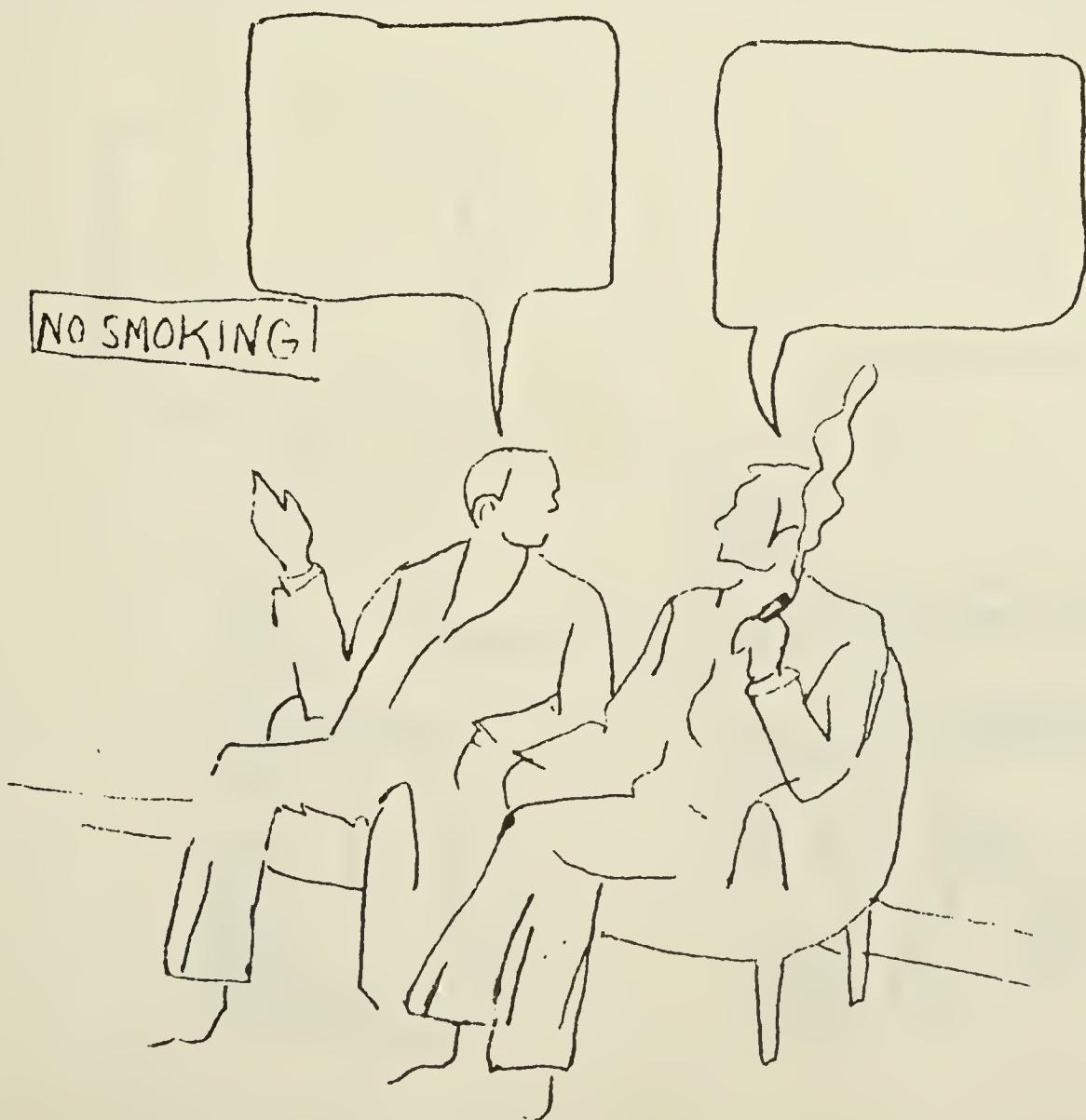
Concreteness

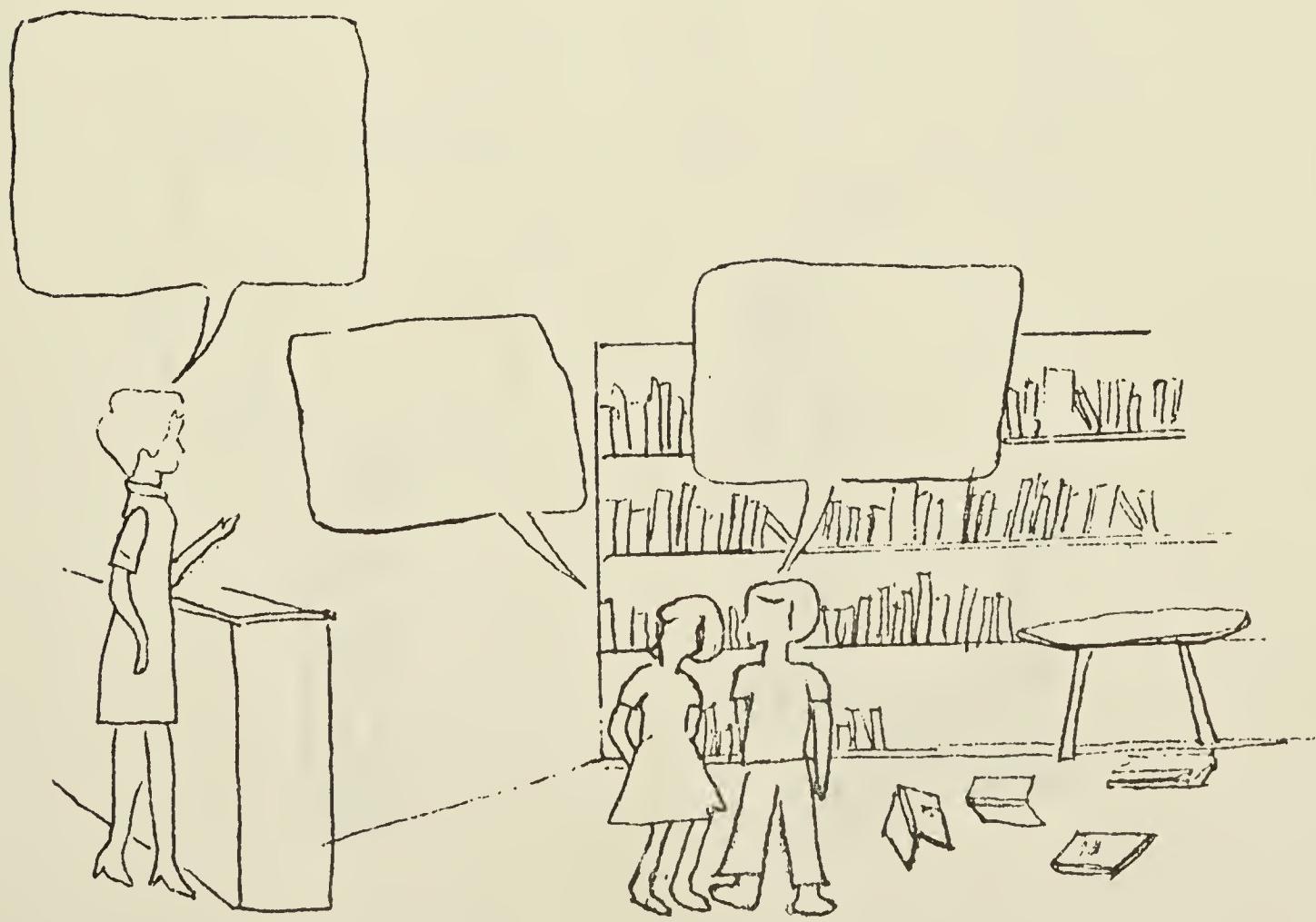
Broad accusations, threats and/or generalizations are used.

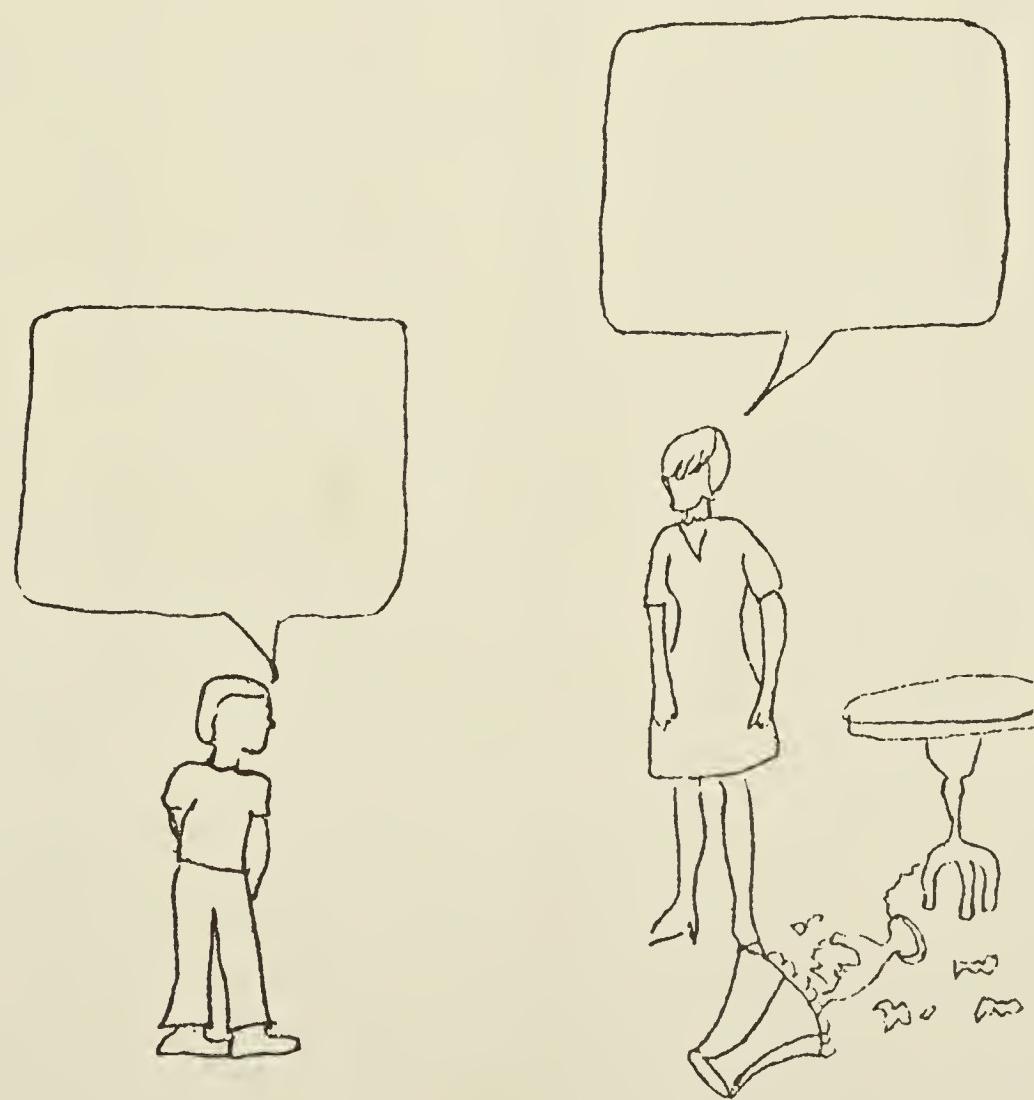
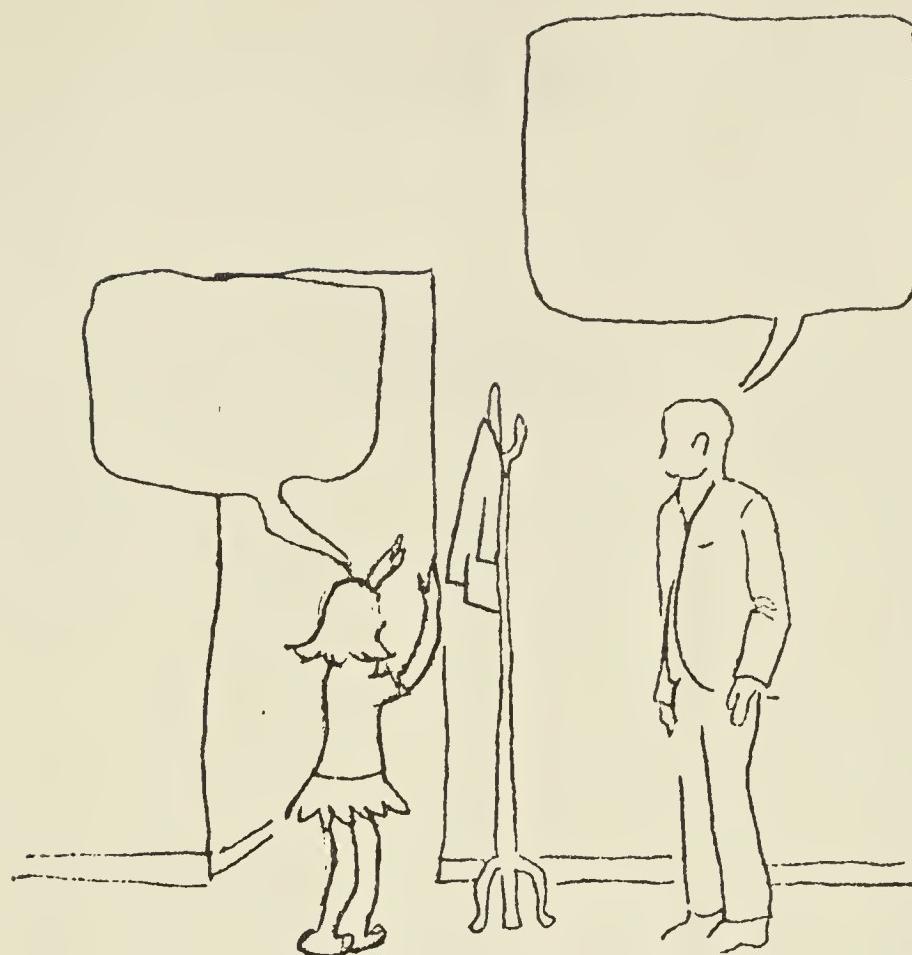
Concreteness

Specific references are made regarding the situation at hand.

Despite the interpretation the child has given for the pictured situation, please evaluate the general tone of the total exchange among members of the situation according to the criteria of helpfulness explained above.







ANSWER SHEET

Non-Helpful

Helpful

B30049